
THE
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ARTICLE I.

The Modern Part of an Universal History, from the earliest Account of Time. Compiled from Original Writers. By the Authors of the Antient Part. Vol. XIX.

WE now come to the history of the knights of Malta, that famous institution, so long the glory, the pride, and the admiration of Christendom, the terror of the Ottoman empire, and the scourge of infidelity. A narration so copious and explicit as this before us, teeming with events the most curious and important, cannot but afford entertainment, however careless the authors may have shewn themselves about that spirit and dignity of expression the subject requires, and which, one would imagine, it naturally inspires.

The volume begins with a description of the island of Malta, the ancient Melita, celebrated in the sacred writings for the hospitable reception given by its inhabitants to the shipwrecked apostle of the Gentiles. It stands in the Mediterranean Sea, about 18 leagues distant from the coast of Sicily, and 50 from Tripoly, yet ranked by Ptolemy, as well as modern geographers, among the African islands, on account of the corrupt Arabic spoken by the natives. Standing under the 36th degree of north latitude, the climate is pleasant and wholesome, but the soil thin, barren, and rocky, till improved by the extraordinary and almost incredible industry of the Maltese knights. How far the change effected by the knights has been advantageous to the island, will appear from the great difference in the number of its inhabitants. Though 60 leagues in circumference, it scarce contained, on their arrival, 12,000 souls ; whereas about

the middle of the last century, they computed about 25,000 able robust men, who were obliged, at firing the signal cannon, to appear in their martial accoutrements, under their proper standards, in less than two hours. At present the inhabitants, exclusive of the knights of the order, the clergy and the officers of the inquisition, or *familiars*, are said to amount to near 60,000.

Malta contains properly but one city, divided by little bays into three parts, each having a distinct appellation. The ancient city retains the old name of Malta by the natives, called Medina. One of the divisions is called Citta-Valetta, built on a high and rocky ground, fortified with strong walls, a ditch cut out of the solid rock, and a variety of other works that render it almost impregnable. The other division takes the name of Vittoriosa, from a long siege it maintained against the Turks. To these we may add the strong castle and town of St. Angelo, standing on a rock at the mouth of the bay, almost ruined by the Turks, anno 1565, and since inhabited but by a handful of workmen belonging to the docks.

As to natural curiosities, this island has none, besides what superstition and ignorance have assigned, several absurd stories being told about St. Paul's cave. The natural curiosities deserve the reader's perusal. Besides a variety of noble buildings and gardens, described by our authors, two beautiful marble heads, in bas-relief, discovered in the year 1776, have always excited the admiration of good judges. The one is inscribed to Zenobia Orientalis Domina, the other to Penthesilea, and both fixed up in the grand master's palace.

* In the church dedicated to St. Agatha, (says our historians) is a most noble statue of that female saint in white marble, placed upon the high altar, and exquisitely wrought. When the Turks laid siege to the city, the superstitious inhabitants fetched it out of the church, and placed it upon the ramparts, where the saint was exposed to the continual firing of the besiegers; and whilst she was wholly employed in protecting her votaries, and unmindful of her own safety, a random-shot came and carried off the little finger of her right hand, which obliged her afterwards to keep so good a look-out, that she received no further harm. This image is held in great veneration by all the Maltese, as the protectress of the city and island. But the greatest curiosity is the grotto of that saint under the church, and runs a great way under ground. The place hath three apertures, at which the curious are let down by ropes, furnished with flambeaux and other conveniencies: but they find it, upon their coming down into it, so full of turnings and windings, so intersected

intersected with other meanders, that they have not the courage to penetrate far into it, for fear of being bewildered and lost. What is still worse is, that the fear and terror they are in all the time hinders them from being able to make any observations, or giving any tolerable account of it; which proves such a discouragement, that few people have the curiosity or heart to go into it. They shew in their great armoury, among other curiosities, the armour, shield, &c. of some of their most famed warriors and grand masters; a cannon made of bars of iron, fastened together by a strong wire, with a very thin case of wood, and the whole covered with a thick leather, well sewed, and so curiously painted, that it looks like a real brass gun. These were at first invented for the convenience of carrying them over high rocks and mountains; but being apt to burst, or become unfit for service, have been set aside since.'

The natives, men and women, dress much in the Sicilian taste, but less genteel: the women are of an ordinary stature, handsome, sprightly, and witty; shy and modest in appearance, yet wanton, lascivious, vindictive, and jealous: all wear veils, as preservatives of virtue and complexions, and persons of quality a kind of mantle, that covers them from head to foot. Those, however, who are either handsome or amorous, manage this incumbrance to great advantage, in displaying peculiar charms; 'and no wonder (say our authors) when they meet with so many young knights, dressed in the most gallant fashions of their respective countries, instead of that of their order; an irregularity which many of their grand masters have in vain endeavoured to suppress; and who being kept under the bonds of celibacy, are of course the more inclined to intrigue and debauchery. In the hot weather, most of the women, especially the young ones, whether of high or mean rank, wear no other cloathing than their smocks and slippers within their houses; but these are commonly so long that they come below their ankles, and some of them wrought and flowered with silk, gold, and silver, after so costly a manner as to cost 100 or 150 crowns. But when they go abroad, they throw their long veils over them, and most commonly wear their linen drawers under them. Beneath they wear a kind of white pumps, which reach up above the ankles. They take care likewise to dress their heads with variety of ornaments, some with jewels, others with trinkets, but chiefly by the plaiting and curling of their hair in various forms, and raising it much above their foreheads. But their greatest pride, when they go abroad, is to have a handsome, or even numerous, retinue of servants and women slaves attending them; and some will even go supported by them on each side,

in a stately manner, though of themselves healthy and lively enough, and generally very fruitful.

‘ The men are both stout and warlike, very sparing and moderate in their diet ; by which, and their constant labour and exercise, they live to a great age, even above 100 or 110 most commonly ; but they are extremely jealous and mistrustful, vindictive, and treacherous, and for a slight injury or affront, such as calling one rogue, or, which is worst of all, cuckold, will frequently assassinate one another. Authors say, that, upon the arrival of the order in their island, great numbers of the better sort came to meet the grand master Villiers, upon his landing, who wore long and bushy beards, and a kind of petticoat about their middle, which came down below the calf of the leg, and being wrought and stitched with cotton, would defend them from the shot of an arrow.’

In contracts of marriage no writings are used, but vows are pledged by the exchange of handkerchiefs, or some trifles, between the lovers ; after which they cohabit for some time, and then the bridegroom leads his bride round the streets, or lanes, of the village, to convince her of his politeness and confidence in her virtue. All this is allowed previous to the marriage-ceremony, and by way of trial.

Since the island came into the hands of the knights, the natives are all bred to the use of fire-arms, are regularly disciplined, and esteemed excellent soldiers. ‘ They are likewise, for the most part, good horsemen, though they make no farther use of horses than for the army, and these are bred to run with most prodigious speed, to leap over hedges and ditches with surprising ease and readiness. Of these they used to keep about 400, but probably they have much increased the number. These are reviewed at least once in six months by the grand master, or some deputy ; and the better to train both horses and riders to the martial discipline, they have races yearly in or near the city, where considerable prizes are allowed to the winners, besides their being exercised at proper seasons. But, besides which, every knight that hath four *scudi* or crowns per day, is obliged to maintain one for his own use, and at his own charge. The number of gallies which the order, or, as they affect to stile it, the religion (because they are chiefly designed for its defence, and are esteemed the bulwark of it against the Turks and Barbary pirates) furnish, is more or less, according to the exigence they are in. The number of them used to be five, till anno 1627, the grand master Paul ordered a sixth, and, anno 1652, Lascares a seventh, to be built. These are very well and strongly built, well manned and commanded, having usually each 100
mariners

mariners and 25 knights on board ; and that which is called the Capitania, and carries the standard of the order, hath most commonly 30 knights. Besides these they have a number of galleons, and other inferior vessels, the crews of all which consist chiefly of slaves, of which they have seldom less than 2 or 3,000, whereof those who do not serve on ship-board are employed in the most laborious and lowest offices at land ; and these are so constantly bought and sold every market-day, that there is no stating the number of them. Upon the whole, whether we consider the many fortifications which have been erected from time to time, as occasion required, or the vast quantity of artillery, and other warlike ammunition, with which every one is furnished, the experience and bravery of the commanders, the good discipline and constant watch that is kept among them, joined to the advantageousness of its situation, we shall be obliged to own, that it was not without good reason that this island hath been long since distinguished by the title of Fior del Mondo, or Flower of the World. But as it is in continual danger of being surpris'd either by the Turks or Barbary pirates, so every place of consequence, especially along the coasts, hath its governor and proper garison, which keeps a constant guard, and a strict patrole every night both on foot and on horseback ; and, upon the least appearance, give the immediate alarm by beacons set on fire on the high grounds, from which they are answered by the firing of the city guns ; so that the alarm is spread through the whole island, and every person who bears arms is got in readiness for defence, in about an hour or two, from the most considerable sea-port to the meanest and remotest village.'

The trade of Malta is inconsiderable, the island scarce producing any of the valuable articles of commerce, in more abundance than is sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants : they, however, are well supplied in all foreign commodities, by the great number of Turkish captures made by the Maltese galleys. The knights have likewise the privilege of coining money, which chiefly consists of silver and copper of low value. The whole revenue of Malta and the island of Gosa in its neighbourhood, comes into the coffers of the grand master, who is chosen with great ceremony by the order. He holds the rank and title of a sovereign prince, next in rank to the imperial, regal, and papal dignities. Formerly the grand masters assumed no higher title in all their letters and mandates, than *the humble servant of the sacred house of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, and the military order of the knights of the sepulchre of our Lord*. Of late years they are addressed by the title of grand masters of

the order of St. John of Jerusalem, princes of Malta and Gosa, &c.

But the grand master assumes a state and magnificence still greater than either his revenues or titles indicate. Whether at table or at church, he always sits under a rich canopy. Knights of the highest order, or of the great cross, are alone admitted to the honour of eating with him, and they too sit upon stools to shew their subordination. He is served by twelve pages of noble families, and has his high steward, carver, taster, and cup-bearer. He cannot be deposed from his dignity without the pope's consent ; nor can disputes or controversies between him and his knights, be decided but by his holiness.

We are favoured next with an account of the origin of the order of knights, the succession of their grand masters, their several removals before they settled in Rhodes, were driven from thence by the Turks, and placed in Malta by the emperor Charles V. their constant and cruel wars with the infidels ; their laws, discipline, and a thousand other curious particulars, which it would be tedious to enumerate. Among a variety of other entertaining narrations, the following story, related by Vertot and the best historians, may furnish amusement to the reader :

‘ Among the many venomous animals that infested Rhodes, there was one of prodigious size, of an amphibious nature, which harboured in a subterraneous cavern at the end of a large morass, and had made dreadful havock among the small and large cattle, and even among the neighbouring inhabitants ; they gave it the name of dragon, but it was more probably either a crocodile or a sea-horse of the first magnitude ; and several Rhodian knights had lost their lives at different times in endeavouring to destroy it, fire-arms not being then in use, and its skin being proof against any other weapon ; upon which account the grand master had expressly forbidden making any further attempts against it, under severe penalties. They all readily obeyed, except a Provencal knight, named Deodat de Gozan, who, less regardful of the prohibition, than of the horrid depredations of the monster, resolved at all hazards to rid the island of it.

‘ That he might atchieve it the more safely, he went out several times to take a distant view of it, till the want of scales, which he observed under his belly, furnished him with an effectual plan for destroying it.

‘ He first retired to his native castle of Gozan, that he might pursue his project with greater secrecy ; and there got an effigy of the monstrous creature, made as exact in colour, shape, and size,

size, as he could, in wood and pasteboard; after which, he set about instructing two young mastiffs how to attack him at that tender part, whilst he did the same on horseback with his lance, and in his armour. This exercise he continued several months; after which he sailed back to Rhodes with them, and two of his domestics, and, without shewing himself to any one, went directly to the place, and attacked the furious beast, ordering his two servants to stand on the neighbouring hill, and, in case they saw him fall, to return home, but, if victorious, or unluckily wounded, to come to his assistance. Upon the first onset he ran with full force against it, but found his lance recoil back, without making the least impression on its skin; but, whilst he was preparing to repeat his blow, his horse, affrighted at its hissing and stench, started so suddenly back, that he would have thrown him down, had he not as dextrously dismounted, when, drawing his sword, he gave the monster a desperate wound in the softest part of the belly, out of which quickly flowed a plentiful stream of blood. His faithful dogs no sooner saw it than they seized on the place; and held it so fast, that he could not shake them off; upon which he gave the knight such a violent blow with his tail, as threw him flat on the ground, and laid his whole body upon him; so that he must have been inevitably stifled with his weight and stench, had not his two domestics come immediately to his assistance, and disengaged him from his load. They found him so spent and breathless, that they began to think him dead; but, upon throwing some water on his face, he opened his eyes, and glad was he when the first object that saluted him was the monster dead before him, which had destroyed so many of his order.

‘ The news of this exploit was no sooner known, than he saw himself surrounded with vast crouds of inhabitants, and met by a great number of knights, who conducted him in a kind of triumph to the palace of the grand master; but great was his mortification here, when, instead of applause and commendations, he received a severe reprimand, and was sent to prison by him, without being permitted to speak for himself, or any one to intercede for him. A council was quickly called, in which that severe governor highly aggravated his crime, and, with his usual austerity and sternness, insisted upon his being punished with the utmost severity for his breach of obedience and discipline, which he maintained was of more dangerous consequence than all the mischief which that and many more such monsters could do. At length, with much intreaty, he was prevailed upon to content himself with degrading him, and Gozan was accordingly stripped of his cross and habit, an indignity which

he esteemed more rigorous than death. He continued some time under this disgrace; after which Villeneuve, who was of a generous temper, and an admirer of valour, having asserted his authority by that severe example, readily yielded to have him received again, and likewise bestowed many signal favours on him; whilst the people, less sparing of their praises than he, paid him the greatest honours every-where; the head of the monster was fastened on one of the gates of the city, as a trophy of Gozan's victory, which was still to be seen there in Mr. Thevenot's time; and the knights, no less grateful, sensible of this signal service, readily chose him their grand master upon the demise of Villeneuve, as we shall see in the sequel. However, even in his lifetime he bestowed several considerable commanderies upon him, and made him his lieutenant-general and bosom-counsellor; rightly concluding, that a person, who had displayed such extraordinary valour and conduct for the safety of that island, could not fail of shewing the same against any of the enemies of Christianity.'

At the death of Helion de Villeneuve the chapter met for the election of a successor, and great dissensions arose. The more religious were for choosing a master who should maintain the ancient discipline, and the rest were for a person of martial abilities, who should revive their maritime strength, strike terror in the infidels, and lead his knights to the acquisition of wealth and glory. When it came to Gozan's turn to vote, he expressed himself thus: *'Upon my entering into this assembly, I took a solemn oath not to propose any knight but such as I thought the most worthy of filling up that important post, and the most affectionate to the general good of the order; and, after having seriously considered the present state of Christendom, and the continual wars which we are bound to carry on against the infidels, the steadiness and vigour required to prevent the least remissness in our discipline, I do declare that I do not find any person better qualified for the well-governing of our order than myself.* He then began to enumerate his former exploits, particularly that of destroying the dragon; but insisted more especially on his behaviour ever since the late grand master had made him his lieutenant-general; and concluded with addressing himself to the electors in these words: *You have already had a proof of my government, and cannot but know what you may expect from it; I am therefore persuaded that you cannot, without doing me an injustice, refuse me your votes.*

'One may easily imagine the surprise the whole chapter was in when they heard him nominate himself; and some of them could not forbear observing what pity it was that what he had said in support of his own pretensions had not come from any other
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other mouth than his own ; but the reflexion displeased the rest, and, upon an impartial comparison of his real merit with that of the other candidates, he was elected by the far greater majority, to the no small joy of the Rhodians, who looked upon him as a hero, and as their deliverer.'

After a long and glorious life he expired in the year 1552, was interred with honours suitable to his merit, and had this inscription placed on his monument, *Draconis extindtor.*

Here we have a distinct journal of the siege of Rhodes, which seems unnecessary, as the reader has already seen that memorable event described in the Turkish history, to which he ought here to have been referred : however, as some particulars omitted in the former relation are mentioned in this, it may be perused with profit.

The siege of Malta is the next curious particular that occurs, and this is so minutely related, that hardly any thing escapes the writer. Several rich captures made by the Maltese gallies, so incensed the grand seignior Soliman, that he resolved to invade the island, and extirpate the order of knights. Accordingly a fleet of 159 large gallies, with 30,000 land-forces on board, was sent on this expedition. Mustapha Basha, the favourite and confident of the sultan, an experienced officer, aged eighty-five years, haughty, cruel, and perfidious in his disposition, was appointed to the command. His landing was opposed by the grand master ; but under favour of a dark night, 3000 men got on shore, and concealing themselves among the rocks, seized on two or three patrolling parties, and made prisoner the brave La Riviere, who bid defiance to all the power of the most excruciating torture, misled Mustapha by his information, and perished under the hands of that barbarian, whose rage smothered the compassion which unfortunate heroism often excites in the most savage breast. As the grand master had, for some time, expected this visit, he made the utmost preparations for giving the infidels a warm reception. His knights were recalled from the different parts of Europe, where they were dispersed, a body of 2000 foot was raised in Italy, and all manner of stores and provisions laid up. The Turks begun their attack on Fort St. Elmo, and persuaded themselves they should carry it in two days. As the conquest of this fort was of importance to their future operations, the trenches were speedily opened, and their batteries played with fury, battering the walls with balls of eighty pounds weight, and what our authors call a basilisk, which threw stones of one hundred and sixty pounds. The terrible havock made in the garrison, obliged the
commander

commander to send for a reinforcement ; and his messenger so magnified the danger in which the fort stood, and represented the situation of the garrison in such gloomy colours, that the grand master found it necessary to revive the drooping spirits of his knights by the following intended reply :

‘ You represent, said he to him, the castle to me, before all these commanders, as a body quite emaciated and exhausted for want of strong remedies ; I myself will go and be its physician, and, if I cannot cure you of your fear, I will at least prevent the infidels taking the advantage of it. This might look indeed as too severe a rebuke, considering the desperate situation the besieged were in from the continual fire of such a battery ; but there was a necessity of concealing it, in order to prevent the rest from being discouraged, because the safety of the whole island depended upon the lengthening of the siege, to give Don Garcia time to send the promised assistance. Having therefore drawn up a sufficient reinforcement, he put himself at their head, resolving, as he said, to defend the place, or be buried under the ruins of it ; but he was quickly surrounded with such a number of knights, who offered themselves to go in his stead, that he had nothing left to do but to make choice of such as he thought most proper for that arduous commission.

‘ They marched accordingly to the place with an undaunted bravery, and most of them lost their lives with the same intrepidity, and were still supplied with fresh ones, who came in droves from England, Germany, France, and other parts of Europe, with the most surprising diligence, to share in the same danger ; many of whom, instead of waiting for the Sicilian fleet to convey them thither, ventured themselves in light barks, or what other vessels they could get, whose entrance into the port Muzetto the grand master facilitated by the constant fire he made upon the enemy. One of his balls having accidentally fallen upon one of the stones that covered their trenches, a splinter gave the Turkish admiral Phiali so desperate a wound, that he was taken up for dead ; the news of which spread a universal dread through the army, and especially through the fleet. The grand master took advantage of their confusion to dispatch his nephew, with another commander, into Sicily, in order to hasten that armament, and settle a proper signal for their reception. He received soon after an express, with a promise from the viceroy, that the stipulated succour would be with him at farthest by the middle of June ; so that he was forced to throw fresh troops into the castle, in order to spin out the time.

‘ In the mean while the commander Medran, who had conducted the last reinforcement, made a lucky sally on the Turks
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when they were least aware of him, under the continual fire of the artillery from the fort, which threw them into such confusion, that he cut a good number of them in pieces before they could rally themselves. This occasioned a bloody and obstinate contest on both sides: unfortunately for the besieged, the wind blew so full against them, that they were quite suffocated with the smoke of the enemy's fire, which forced them to retreat. The Turks, taking the advantage of it, pursued them through it unperceived, and by that means placing themselves on their counterescarp, made a safe lodgment upon it, with their gabions, woolfacks, and timber, and quickly reared a battery, and fixed their standard upon it. They had such an advantage from thence over the besieged, that scarce any of them dared to raise his head above the ramparts, but he was immediately shot by the janissaries musquetry. Their situation was become at length so desperate, that the pusillanimous Lacerta, who had once before been so severely rebuked by the grand master, was now proposing the undermining and blowing up this new battery; which advice, however, was unanimously rejected with scorn, as proceeding rather from cowardice and despair than from any desire of saving the place.'

During this bloody contest the Turks were reinforced by two strong detachments, under the command of the famous corsairs, Dragut and Uluckiali. Dragut disapproved of beginning the siege by investing this fort, but would not alter the measure, apprehending it might dispirit the troops. A fresh attack was renewed with redoubled vigour, which served only to animate the brave garrison to perform actions almost incredible. At last, while the knights were oppressed with sleep and fatigue, the enemy applied scaling ladders to the walls, broke in like a torrent, and would have carried all before them, had not the tumult alarmed the garrison, and called them to arms. Now might be seen the most obstinate conflict between courage, fighting for liberty, life, and glory, against numbers pursuing the dictates of ambition and revenge. Having disputed every inch of ground which they covered with the dead bodies of the enemy, the knights were forced to yield up the ravelin, and send to the grand master for fresh supplies. Lamiranda, a brave Sicilian knight, requests, that he may be sent to take command of the garrison of St. Elmo, whither he finds means to convey himself with a fresh reinforcement.

'In the mean time Dragut proposed the stopping the communication between the fort and the borough from which it received all its supplies, by planting a new battery at the point of the grand port; but that being thought at too great a distance
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from the camp, and consequently liable to be seized by the besieged, unless it were defended by a greater number of troops than they could spare, Mustapha advised the suspending of it till the arrival of the bey of Algiers, who was daily expected, and would be highly pleased to be complimented with that office; the rest of the council acquiesced in the proposal. Then the basha ordered the ravelin to be raised by the help of fascines, wool-packs, and other materials, to a height above the parapet of the place, and a new battery to be planted upon it. By this means they not only gained a full view of the fort, but could prevent, by their fire, any of the Maltese soldiers from coming near the parapet. This obliged them to throw up a deep intrenchment within it, to secure their approach; but this also was quickly after destroyed by the help of a bridge, which Mustapha ordered to be thrown between the new battery and the parapet, large enough for six men to go over abreast; the planks of which he ordered to be covered with earth to a certain depth, to prevent their burning it. This new bridge opened a way for them quite to the parapet; but Lamiranda did not let them enjoy long the fruit of it; for, by the artifice of a feigned sally, he got it burnt and demolished by some of his stoutest men on that very night. The Turks, however, finished a new one by the next day, and at night got down into the ditch, where they reared up their ladders, as if they had designed to scale the ramparts, which quickly obliged the besieged to appear on the breach in crowds. This was what the Turkish general wanted, who immediately caused a most dreadful discharge of his artillery to be made upon them, which killed a much greater number of them than had been done since the beginning of the siege. The surviving knights, seeing the desperate condition the fort was reduced to, sent the commander Madran to acquaint the grand master with it, who immediately communicated it to the council. The majority agreed upon abandoning the place, which could be no longer kept but by the destruction of those remaining forces which were reserved, and would hardly prove sufficient to defend the other fortresses of the island; so that the more forces they sent into it, the greater service they did the enemy, by rendering the rest of the island still more defenceless. One might have expected that a person of the grand master's experience and sagacity would have readily yielded to such pressing motives; nevertheless, though he acknowledged them all to be just, and that he could not but bewail the fate of those who were obliged to maintain so dangerous and destructive a post, yet he still asserted, that, upon such an exigence as this, it was better to hazard the loss of some of the members than that of the whole body, assured as he was, that

that if the castle of St. Elmo was once yielded to the Turks, they must give up all hopes of receiving any farther assistance from Sicily, the viceroy of which had solemnly declared, that he would never hazard his master's fleet and forces in defence of the rest of the island, if that fort was once yielded to the enemy; so that the safety of the former wholly depended upon prolonging the siege of the latter, cost what it would to the order. The council having readily approved the grand master's advice, Madran was ordered to go back and acquaint them with their resolution, and their motives for it; and to exhort them, according to the duty of their profession, to defend the place to the very last. This answer was relished only by a small number of the oldest knights, who, to encourage the rest, publicly vowed to do so, or bury themselves under the ruins of it; but the far greater part of them put a much harsher construction upon the grand master's resolution, which they said was only agreed to by those, who, having no share in the danger, were the less concerned how lavish they were of other men's lives.

What still increased the general discontent was, a mine which the Turks were pushing forward under the first parapet; upon which they dispatched a letter to the grand master, signed by no less than three hundred and fifty of the order, in which they boldly declared, that if he did not send them that very night a sufficient number of barges to convey them out of the fort, in which they were sure to be all butchered, they would unanimously fall out by the next morning on the enemy, and sacrifice their lives with their swords in their hands, as the most easy as well as honourable death. The grand master, though greatly surpris'd at the desperateness of such a resolution, yet still aiming at gaining time, ordered forthwith three commissaries to pass over into the castle, under pretence of examining the condition it was in, and how long it might hold out, but, in reality to expostulate with, and reduce them to their duty. Two of these, being men of sagacity and temper, endeavoured to dispel their fears, by representing the place in a condition to hold out some days longer; but the third, named Castriot, and said to be descended from the famed Castriot, better known by the name of Scanderbeg, a man full of martial zeal, instead of soothing advice, began to rate them for their pusillanimity, alledging, that there were still several means to be used to shelter them some time longer from the enemy's artillery, and ridiculed their fears of a mine in a place that was built upon a hard rock. This language, which cast a most affronting reflection on their want of skill and courage, so exasperated them, that they proposed the retaining him against his will, to display his superior parts,

parts, and to put his own lessons in practice in defence of the place. Some of them went so far as to secure the castle-gates, to prevent his going away; which raised such a tumult in the garrison as might have been of the worst consequences, had not the commander Lamiranda caused the drums to beat to arms, and dispersed them to their respective posts.

At their return, the other two commissaries gave it as their opinion, that the place could not hold out another assault; but Castriot, persisting still in his own, offered to go himself with a few recruits, and defend it till the succours arrived from Sicily; which the grand master readily agreed to, and the bishop of Malta furnished him with a sufficient sum to raise these recruits upon the islanders; not perhaps that they depended altogether upon his superior valour or conduct, but as they saw no other way left but that of prolonging the siege. However that be, the recruits were raised instantly, and many volunteers came and offered themselves to be enlisted, not only from the country, but even some of the principal citizens expressed a more than ordinary desire to follow him. The grand master, having bestowed the highest encomiums on them, and especially on their valiant leader, sent them into the castle, and withal gave him a letter to the officers of the garrison, written in harsher terms, ordering them to resign their posts to the new-comers, and to repair out of hand to the convent, where they would be in less danger of their lives, and himself in less fear about the place. Nothing could have been thought of more mortifying than this language, nor more expressive of the greatest contempt, than the ordering them to resign the defence of such an important place to a handful of new-raised recruits. They quickly felt such pungent tokens of shame and remorse, as made them resolve to sacrifice their lives, rather than abandon their posts; and instantly went and intreated the governor to intercede with the grand master to recal his orders and his new troops; and to assure him, that they would maintain their posts to the last drop of their blood, and endeavour by the most intrepid bravery to blot out the disgrace of their former behaviour. The governor was easily persuaded to dispatch an account of this to the grand master by an able diver, for it was not possible for boats to pass from one to the other without the utmost danger. The grand master made a shew of rejecting their petition once and again with more than common scorn; but was at length prevailed upon to recal his recruits, and to entrust once more the defence of the place to them.

All this while the commander, who, as we hinted above, had been dispatched to hasten the succours from Sicily, finding the
viceroy

viceroys still tardy, had ordered the grand master's nephew, together with the commander St. Aubyn, who had been sent thither on the same errand, and had each a galley under their command, to gather up what troops they could, and to sail with all speed for Malta. They did so; but, upon their arrival, found the coasts so strongly guarded all round by Dragut's galleys, that they were forced to return to Sicily, after having tried all means in vain to get to land either at the Island of Gosa, or in some obscure creek of Malta. They were scarcely arrived at Saragossa, before they received fresh letters from the grand master, full of the most stinging reproaches to his nephew for his neglect and disobedience; and an intimation, that a man was unworthy of the order, unless he dared more than a common commander. Silvago was no less pressed in other letters, by the desperate condition of fort St. Elmo, to hasten the Sicilian succours, but had obtained hitherto nothing from the viceroy but pompous promises; and, when he now thought he had prevailed upon him to dispatch at least two of his galleys, with a regiment of soldiers, along with the other two which were waiting for them at Saragossa, he was again mortified by him thro' some new and shameful delays, so that every thing seemed to conspire against the relief of the place.

‘ Whilst the grand master and the rest of the order were waiting with the utmost impatience for the so long promised succours, they employed their thoughts and time in supplying the garrison of St. Elmo with all necessaries for sustaining the general assault they were in daily expectation of, and in inventing new means and stratagems to annoy the enemy. It was upon this occasion that some of their engineers found out a new kind of missile weapon, till then unknown, called fire-hoops, or circles, which made the most dreadful havock among them. On the other hand, the besiegers were not idle in their camp, but continued battering and cannonading the fort from the 17th of June to the 14th of July, almost without intermission; every day produced some fresh attempt of assaulting the place, whilst every thing was preparing for a general attack; to facilitate which, the 15th day was taken up in battering the wall quite down to the very rock on which it stood.

‘ The 16th was no sooner come, than the Turkish galleys came and ranged themselves before the castle, and fell to battering it with their whole artillery; whilst the batteries on the land side did the same with theirs, which consisted of 36 large pieces of cannon. The Turkish forces entered the ditch at the sound of their martial instruments, and, upon the signal given, mounted the breach with undaunted fury, whilst 4000 of their

infantry

infantry kept firing against the place, to keep the besieged off the breach. This did not prevent their appearing upon it with their arms, and, with an intrepidity more threatening than a bulwark, both sides came to a close engagement, in which the assailants, being annoyed by the lighted hoops before-mentioned, and great numbers set on fire by them, sent out such dismal cries, as drowned the noise of all the large and small fire-arms both of the besiegers and besieged. Whilst this dreadful onset lasted, the captains of the Turkish galleys, observing that the main force of the garrison was run to the defence of the breach, endeavoured to assault it on another side. This being perceived by the grand master, a couple of large pieces were instantly pointed against them, which at the first fire destroyed twenty of them, and put the rest to flight. The Turks, who had mounted the assault, had no better success, the boldest of their janissaries being forced to abandon their posts at the sight of the fiery hoops that were continually thrown among them; so that, after a most obstinate contest, which had lasted near six hours, the basha was obliged to sound a retreat, after having lost near 2000 of his best forces. The besieged, on their side, lost seventeen of their knights, among whom were some of the highest rank and merit, besides about 300 of their soldiers either killed or wounded.

By this time Mustapha plainly perceived that all his efforts would prove abortive, unless he could wholly cut off the communication between the castle and borough, and thereby prevent the former from receiving any succour from the latter. We observed before, that this task had been reserved for the bey of Algiers and his troops; but, as they heard nothing about his coming, he was obliged to think of some other way. Whilst he was deliberating about it behind the trench, with his chief engineer, and the famed Dragut, the latter marched out with his usual intrepidity to reconnoitre the ground. They had not followed him far before the engineer had his head shot off by a cannon-ball from the castle of St. Angelo, which hitting afterwards against a stone, threw a piece of it against Dragut's right ear with such violence, that it cast him down flat and senseless on the ground, and set his nose, eyes, and ears, a streaming with blood. The basha, apprehensive lest his troops should be disheartened by the loss of this old and experienced commander, ordered a covering to be thrown over him, and had him conveyed into his tent; after which he came out unconcerned, as if nothing had happened, and stood on the very spot where Dragut had fallen, till he had descried a proper place where to fix a battery fit for his purpose.

‘ The fort being thus invested on all sides, and no possibility left to supply it with fresh troops, the grand master, who easily foresaw it could not hold out much longer, unless the Sicilian succours came time enough to force the enemy to raise the siege, had recourse again to the commander Longano, his resident in Sicily, who pressed the viceroy so close, not only by laying before him the desperate state St. Elmo was reduced to, and by reminding him of his frequently repeated assurances, but, what was still more cogent, informing him of the express orders he had received from the king his master to send all proper assistance to the island, he at length obtained the two long promised gallies, which had been detained till then upon several frivolous pretences, but which he now gave leave to sail with the other two commanded by St. Aubyn and the grand master’s nephew, directly for Malta. But the politic Garcia had taken care beforehand to give the command of them to one of his creatures, named Cardona, with express orders, that if fort St. Elmo was taken by the Turks, he should instantly sail homeward, without landing any forces in the island ; so that this last succour proved of no use to the order, through the obsequiousness of its commander, who, under some pretence or other, only shewed himself at a distance, waiting till the loss of the fort should authorize his return into Sicily. In the mean while the grand master attempted more than once or twice to throw some fresh reinforcement into the place, there being still a great number of knights who expressed the most fervent desire to signalize themselves in its defence, or lose their lives in so glorious an attempt ; but the avenues on all sides were so strongly guarded by the enemy, that all his efforts proved abortive ; whilst the garrison in it, seeing nothing but death and destruction now before their eyes, unanimously agreed to sell their lives as dear as possible, and to maintain their ground to their very last breath.

‘ This resolution they kept with the most surprising bravery : the basha, taking the advantage of their distress, ordered the general attack to be renewed, which continued, after the greatest obstinacy and resistance, till night put an end to it, the Turkish general being no less prodigal of his men’s lives than the knights now were of their own, and a dreadful slaughter was made on both sides, without losing or gaining any ground. The besieged, who expected that it would be renewed the next morning, employed that short respite in dressing those that were wounded, and enabling all that could make their appearance either with sword, musket, or pike, to come the next morning on the breach, those that could not walk being carried to the place, and all resolutely bent to lose their lives upon it. We

omit mentioning their other preparations of a religious nature, such as confession, receiving the sacrament, embracing, forgiving, and praying for one another, all which were performed with that seriousness and solemnity suitable to their condition.

‘ On the next morning, accordingly, being the 23d of July, the assault was renewed with fresh vigour, and a certainty of victory. The Turks found the sorrowful remains of the garrison ready to receive them with their usual obstinacy: the fire and attack lasted four hours, by which time the assailants, having gained the top of the cavalier, and other eminences that commanded the breach, could take their aim at pleasure, and chuse whom they had a mind to kill; by which means the garrison, now dwindled to about threescore, and part of them disabled, was soon reduced to nothing by their continual fire; so that the contest may justly be said to have ended with the death of the last surviving knight. The basha then entered the fort in a kind of triumph; but when he had viewed it, and came to consider the loss which so small a place had cost him, could not forbear crying out, *What must the father cost us, seeing this little son of his has destroyed us so many thousands of lives?* And well might he, when, according to most writers, above 8000 of his best janissaries and spahis had perished before it; the thought of which raised his brutish fury to such a height, that he caused the breasts of several Christians that were expiring with their wounds to be ripped open, their hearts to be plucked out, and to be shot into the borough, whence the grand master could behold all this horrid scene of inhumanity: he likewise caused their bodies to be split cross-wise, on their backs and bellies, in derision to Christianity: some of these he caused to be hung up by their necks, hands, and feet, on the ramparts; others to be tied to planks covered with their under-garment, on which the cross of the order was fixed, and to be flung into the sea, in hopes that the tide would throw them against the foot of the castle of St. Angelo. In revenge of which barbarity, the grand master caused all the Turkish captives to be butchered, and their heads to be shot reeking hot from his artillery, into the fort. All this time the Turkish fleet was sailing into the Merza Muzetto in triumph, at the sound of their cannon, trumpets, and other martial instruments. Some of the officers went into Dragut’s tent, to inform him of the taking of the fort, but found him quite speechless, yet not so far gone, but he gave some tokens of satisfaction, and expired immediately after. The order lost in this siege, which lasted just a month, about 1300 men, among which were 130 knights, and some of them men of the highest rank and character. Among these were the noble commander Lamiranda, who

who offered himself a volunteer when the fort was reduced to great straits; the brave high baily of Negropont, who, old, lame, and decrepid, as he was, caught an old halberd in his hand, and, mixing himself among the thickest of the janissaries, killed several of them, and fought till his head was struck off by one of their officer's sabres, who instantly caused it to be stuck on the head of a lance, and planted in full sight of the borough, where the grand master and the chief of the order stood on an eminence, and, with the utmost grief and consternation, beheld the horrid havock which the enemy made among them.

'In this manner were all the outworks defended with an intrepidity that astonished the Turks, who, at Rhodes, and upon many other occasions, had experienced the valour of the knights. After a siege of four months the Sicilian fleet arrived with 6000 veteran soldiers, 100 knights, and a great number of volunteers, eager to signalize themselves, which obliged Mustapha to destroy his works, embark his troops, and retire from Malta with the utmost precipitation. He was scarce under sail, when he received intelligence of the weakness of the reinforcement that had occasioned his consternation. A council of war was called, and an unanimous resolution taken to return; upon which 20000 men were landed, attacked by the Maltese, and totally defeated. Thus Malta was relieved, and the reputation of the knights raised to the highest pitch of glory for their perseverance, courage, and military conduct, in all which they surpassed the rest of mankind in those times.'

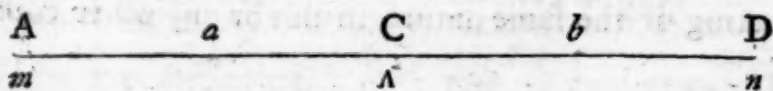
Subsequent to the history of Malta is that of the Visigoths in Spain, from the accession of Euric to that of Recared; a period which, if we mistake not, has already been related in the *Ancient Universal History*.

Next we have the destruction of the Visigoths by the Moors, with a very affecting account of the dreadful devastations committed in Spain by these barbarians: the volume concluding with a copious relation of the means by which the Christian power was revived in Asturias, and of the foundation, rise, and progress of the kingdoms of Leon and Oviedo. As the subject becomes now more interesting, we doubt not but we shall see the authors combine elegance of composition and language, with the learning, care, and labour, so perspicuous in the former parts of the work, which certainly render it greatly superior to any undertaking of the same nature, in this or any other country.

ART. II. *Philosophical Transactions, giving some Account of the present Undertakings, Studies, and Labours, of the Ingenious, in many considerable Parts of the World. Vol. LI. Part I. For the Year 1759, concluded.* 4to. Pr. 12s. Davis and Reymers.

THE few papers in pure geometry and mechanics form almost the only scientific part of our modern transactions; for as to the absurd medley of communications in natural philosophy, the prolix accounts of meteors, thunder-storms, earthquakes, lightning, comets, &c. &c. &c. they scarce deserve the name of philosophical, or, indeed, the perusal of any man who is not as much at leisure as these idle correspondents of the society. In our last Number we selected such miscellaneous papers as we imagined might prove the most beneficial and entertaining to our readers; we shall now endeavour to give the best account of the geometrical and mechanical, which the nature of the subjects, and the limits of an article will admit. The first that occurs is of a merely speculative nature, and so obscurely expressed, that we are doubtful whether we attain to the meaning of the author. Mr. Blake, the author of this paper, observes, that writers on the greatest effect possible of engines, in any given time, have only considered the case of an uniform rotation, where the power and resistance being brought to an exact balance, the former is but just sufficient to overcome the latter, and prevent a diminution of the generated motion. Mr. Blake, on the other hand, examines the case of an uniformly accelerated motion, and deduces from certain calculations, that the load to be raised for the greatest effect of a steam engine (to which he adopts his maximum) will be just half what is sufficient to balance the atmosphere, whether the brachia of the lever be equal or not; provided, however, the inertia of the materials composing the working parts of the engine be abstracted. To own the truth, this gentleman's principles, and conclusion, are equally above our comprehension; but that the reader may judge for himself, we shall quote his proposition, which, by the way, is merely hypothetical, before we offer any remarks of our own.

* A general expression for the time of a stroke in such vibratory engines, will lead us without trouble to a computation of their effects.



* Let AD be a lever, whose brachia are a and b , and supposed without weight. Let m be a power, and n a weight. Then

$a :$

$a : b :: n : \frac{bn}{a}$, the balance for n at A , and $m - \frac{bn}{a}$ is the effective force at A , which multiplied by the lever a gives $ma - nb$ for the efficaciousness of that force in the angular velocity of the power and weight. Now, by the principles of mechanics, the inertia of any bodies revolving about a center is as the quantities of matter into the squares of the brachia; and in the present case, therefore, the whole inertia of m and n is as $ma^2 + nb^2$. Hence then, and because the velocity generated in a given particle of time is as the force directly and inertia inversely, we have $\frac{ma - nb}{ma^2 + nb^2}$ as the accelerating force, or the measure of the angular velocity of the power and weight at the end of the said given particle of time. And I use the angular velocity, because the arbitrary proportions in the lengths of the brachia which may form an equilibrium will not alter the expression. But again, the times of descent by means of uniform forces, thro' a given space, are inversely as the square roots of the accelerating forces, or measures of the velocities generated in a given particle of time; and therefore $\sqrt{\frac{ma^2 + nb^2}{ma - nb}}$ is a general expression for the time of a stroke. This being had, the solution is easy; for, supposing n only to be variable, say as $\sqrt{\frac{ma^2 + nb^2}{ma - nb}} : n :: 1$, a constant or given time: $n \sqrt{\frac{ma - nb}{ma^2 + nb^2}}$ the effect in time 1, *ex hypoth.* the greatest effect which can possibly be produced in the said given time. Taking, then, as usual, the fluxion equal 0, we have, after a proper reduction, $2a^3m^2 - 3a^2mnb + amnb^2 - 2n^2b^3 = 0$, and $n = \frac{am}{b} \sqrt{\frac{a}{b} + \frac{3a-b}{4b}}^2 - \frac{am \times 3a-b}{4b^2}$. Therefore, in these sorts of engines, when the brachia are given, the weight : power :: $\frac{a}{b} \sqrt{\frac{a}{b} + \frac{3a-b}{4b}}^2 - \frac{a \times 3a-b}{4b^2} : ;$ and if the brachia are equal, *i. e.* if $a=b$, the weight : power :: $\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}} - \frac{1}{2} : 1$, *viz.* 0,618 : 1 nearly when the effect is a maximum. And so, in like manner, when b, m and n are given, and a is made variable, it is easy to see that, instead of the load, the best distance of the power from the fulcrum of the lever will be the result of the process; *viz.* $a : b :: n + \sqrt{n^2 + mn} : m$. But, this by the way.

'In the proportion here determined, the power m is a weight, and therefore $ma - nb$, which is the generating force, being partly employed

employed to overcome the inertia of the quantity of matter m , it is not wholly taken up in giving motion to the weight n ; and the relative velocity is continually decreasing. But, on the other hand, if m be the force of a spring, as is that of our atmosphere, or if n can be uniformly accelerated any how, in repeated vibrations, that there may be no sensible diminution of the relative velocity, the whole will be exerted on the weight to be raised; *i. e.* the tension of the rope or chain, by which the power is confined to act on the weight, will always be the same as tho' the beam were at rest; and then, by expunging ma^2 out of the expression for the greatest effect, $n \sqrt{\frac{ma - nb}{ma^2 + nb^2}}$ becomes evi-

dently enlarged to $n \sqrt{\frac{ma - nb}{nb^2}}$. The consequences are

these. 1st. The greatest effect of this engine when m is a spring, will always exceed the cotemporary effect where m is a weight. 2^{dly}. The proportion of the power and weight will then be $n : m :: a : 2b$, as appears by taking the fluxion of $n \sqrt{\frac{ma - nb}{nb^2}} = 0$, and reducing the equation in the manner above.

We shall beg leave, however, to observe, that notwithstanding the weight moves with an accelerated motion at first, yet when the velocity of the power is constant and invariable, its action upon the weight decreases, while the velocity of the weight proportionably encreases; the inverse ratio of these velocities being that of the power to the weight, according to the fixed principles of mechanics. Thus the action of the steam on the piston in the boiler of a steam-engine, is to be estimated from the excess of the velocity of the fluid, we mean its expansion, above the momentum of the piston, or from their relative velocity only. Before the engine can work regularly, every bungling mechanic knows, that the action of the steam must become equal to the resistance of all the parts of the engine, an exact counterpoise be produced, and all accelerated motion destroyed, in which case, any regard 'to an uniform accelerated motion in repeated vibrations,' will be in itself ridiculous and absurd. To render this intelligible, let us take a common instance: Suppose the expansion or velocity of the steam be represented by a , and the velocity of that part of the engine on which it immediately acts, when the motion of the machine is uniform by u , then $a - u$ will denote their relative velocities. Let the weight ballancing the power of the steam, when its velocity is a , be represented by A , and let p denote the weight which would balance the force of the same steam, when its velocity was only

$a-u$ then $p : A :: a - u^2 : a^2$. If we regard the quantity of the weight only, abstracted from friction and all other impediments, suppose it $= q A$, and because the motion of the machine is uniform, $p = q \times A = \frac{A \times a - u^2}{a a}$. The momentum of this weight will be $q A u = \frac{A u \times a - u^2}{a a}$; i. e. a maximum when the fluxion of $\frac{u \times a - u^2}{a a}$ vanishes. In this case, therefore, the

machine will have the greatest effect if $u = \frac{a}{2}$, or the weight

$$q A = \frac{A \times a - u^2}{a a} = \frac{4 A}{9}$$

It would be difficult to render this very clear to sciolists in mixed mathematics; but the geometer will easily comprehend our meaning; and how unnecessarily the learned Mr. Blakes has bestowed time and application, on a subject absurd even in idea, at least as far as he is intelligible to us. Perhaps, however, the censors of the society alone are culpable, for inserting what they probably did not understand; since the author honestly declares, that he communicates these reflections, only to introduce some further remarks concerning the proportions of the cylinders, before communicated to the society. As these remarks are exceedingly ingenious and important to mechanics, we shall beg leave to insert them.

In all values of the brachia, with regard to their lengths, and all values of n , the expression $\sqrt{\frac{ma^2 + nb^2}{ma - nb}}$ for the time of a stroke, when m is a weight, is the general expression to be used for the time. 2dly, m being considered as a spring, the time of a stroke is as $\sqrt{\frac{nb^2}{ma - nb}}$; and then if, according to what I have there directed, a be taken variable, and m the reciprocal of a , the advantages to be gained by the breadth of the cylinder can only arise from a diminution of friction, and from the matter in the beam; for, the expression $\sqrt{\frac{nb^2}{ma - nb}}$ becomes constant, and thence the strokes are isochronal. I might furthermore, proceed to examine into these advantages, more explicitly than is there done, upon the principles laid down, when m is a weight. But many particulars (such as the form of the brachia and various appendages, with their quantities of matter and centers of gyration) being wanting to perfect the theory of the construction, I shall drop the inquiry when I have made only one remark more. It is this. The shortness of the brachia di-

minishes the resistance of the engine to motion ; and, therefore, the inequality which I proposed in them was in part to avail myself of that obvious advantage, without incurring the inconvenience of enlarging the pump-bores. I say it is an obvious advantage ; for, the matter in the brachia, that the equilibrium may be preserved, being inversely as their lengths, and the resistance to motion in the direct ratio of the squares of those lengths, the resistance of the longer arm is to that of the shorter as the lengths of them directly.'

Number XVIII. is an experimental enquiry concerning the natural power of water and wind to turn mills, and other machines depending on circular motion, by Mr. Smeaton. However trite and beaten the subject of this paper may appear to practical mechanics, they will find their account in perusing it. The ingenious author has described a curious model of a machine, explanatory of the ideas he would convey, and has reduced a variety of experiments to a set of deductions and corollaries, which we heartily regret we cannot insert in such a manner as to be intelligible. His observations on the construction and effects of windmill sails, evince him to be an excellent mechanic. The following maxims will, we hope, be sufficient to satisfy the reader with regard to the truth of our assertion : they are, indeed, all we can quote of the number, without violence to the sense of our author.

‘ 1st. Concerning the effects of sails, according to the different velocity of the wind.

‘ Maxim 1. *The velocity of windmill sails, whether unloaded, or loaded so as to produce a maximum, is nearly as the velocity of the wind, their shape and position being the same.*

‘ Maxim 2. *The load at the maximum is nearly, but somewhat less than, as the square of the velocity of the wind, the shape and position of the sails being the same.*

‘ Maxim 3. *The effects of the same sails at a maximum are nearly, but somewhat less than, as the cubes of the velocity of the wind.*

‘ Maxim 4. *The load of the same sails at the maximum is nearly as the squares, and their effect as the cubes, of their number of turns in a given time.*

‘ Maxim 5. *When sails are loaded so as to produce a maximum at a given velocity, and the velocity of the wind increases, the load continuing the same ; 1stly, The increase of effect, when the increase of the velocity of the wind is small, will be nearly as the squares of those velocities : 2dly, When the velocity of the wind is double, the effects will be nearly as 10:27½ : But, 3dly, When the velocities compared, are more than double of that where the given load produces a maximum,*

maximum, the effects increase nearly in a simple ratio of the velocity of the wind.

‘ 2dly. Concerning the effects of sails of different magnitudes, the structure and position being similar, and the velocity of the wind the same.

‘ Maxim 6. In sails of a similar figure and position, the number of turns in a given time will be reciprocally as the radius or length of the sail.

‘ Maxim 7. The load at a maximum that sails of a similar figure and position will overcome, at a given distance from the center of motion, will be as the cube of the radius.

‘ Maxim 8. The effect of sails of similar figure and position, are as the square of the radius.

‘ 3dly. Concerning the velocity of the extremities of windmill sails, in respect to the velocity of the wind.

‘ Maxim 9. The velocity of the extremities of Dutch sails, as well as of the enlarged sails, in all their usual positions when unloaded, or even loaded to a maximum, are considerably quicker than the velocity of the wind.’

After exhibiting tables of the ratios of the velocity of the extremities of windmill sails, to the velocity of the wind; and of the absolute effect produced by a given velocity of the wind, upon sails of a given magnitude and construction, he lays down the following general proposition: ‘ That all planes, however situated, that intercept the same section of the wind, and having the same relative velocity, in regard to the wind, when reduced to the same direction, have equal powers to produce mechanical effects.’

In this imperfect manner are we forced to retail to our readers this very useful and important paper of the ingenious Mr. Smeaton, which, however, may convey some entertainment, and at least excite their curiosity to consult the original at full length.

The third and last paper, that can be called either geometrical or mechanical, is by the learned and diligent Dr. Brakenridge, to whom the society is obliged for a variety of curious scientific lucubrations. It treats of a new method of considering geometrical curves, from the sections of a solid, hitherto unnoticed by geometricians. An abstract of this paper would be still less intelligible to our readers than of the former, without a number of diagrams, of which our plan will not admit.

Such

Such is the volume of the transactions of which we now take our leave, heartily recommending to the gentlemen intrusted with the publication, to usher the second part into the world in a smaller compass, should nothing more to the credit of the society offer, than what we are able to perceive in the first.

ART. III. *Encaustic : or, Count Caylus's Method of Painting in the Manner of the Ancients. To which is added a sure and easy Method for fixing of Crayons.* By J. H. Müntz. 8vo. Pr. 3s. Webley.

AS neither the author, nor any person in our language that we know of, has given us the history of this pretty modern invention, we shall beg leave to supply that defect.

In the year 1749 Mr. Bachelier, a painter of Paris, by chance discovered that wax was dissolved by spirit of turpentine ; and he was from this discovery induced to try it in painting. He made use of wax, therefore, thus dissolved, instead of oil, for mixing his colours, and painted a Zephyrus and Flora with great care, which however was sold at a trifling price, and the artist discontinued a manner which he found not attended with success.

In the mean time the count de Caylus, a man of ingenuity and taste, endeavoured to find out the method of painting in wax by burning, which Pliny, Vitruvius, and several others of the ancients have described. He caused a painter to draw the head of Minerva in the manner directed by him, with wax coloured instead of oil colours, and this met with universal approbation.

From the applause with which this essay was received, Mr. Bachelier again was resolved to reassume his former attempts ; a girl of eight years old was drawn, which was regarded as a piece of great merit ; and upon count Caylus making his method a secret, this gentleman published his own discoveries a long time before those of the count Caylus had appeared.

The count has given us not less than five different manners of painting in wax ; one of which is hardly practicable, and the other four by no means answer the ancient manner of encaustic, which should at once be conducted by colouring the wax, melting it at the fire, burning it into the wood to be painted on, and polishing the whole when finished with a clean linen cloth. Not one of the methods, I say, of the count Caylus, agreed with

with this description left us by the ancients ; and his discoveries may therefore more properly be called his own.

The method adopted by Mr. Muntz in the work before us, though he ascribes it to the count, in fact belongs to Mr. Bachelier, who has also given us four different methods of encaustic painting. The method pursued by Mr. Muntz is the second of Mr. Bachelier, and is as described by Mr. Muntz, as follows : Stretching a clean soft linen cloth upon a straining frame, rub it on the back with wax, until a proper quantity is found to adhere ; the knots, and unevennesses of the linen, being rubbed down by a pumice stone. When this is done take the colours the same as in oil-painting, and mixing them with water, lay them on the cloth with the most unsparing hand, and with the greatest body possible ; but as fixing them with wax is apt to deepen some colours, the best way in such a case is to try their variations from the wax upon another piece of cloth, previous to laying them on. When the whole is finished in such a manner as to please the artist, and when dry, the picture, in order to fix the colours, is then to be taken to a sea-coal fire, with the painted side towards it, at about two feet distance. As it grows warm, by gentle degrees, still bring it nearer the fire till within a foot from the grate, but never closer. When it is perceived, by the shining and colour of the painted surface, that all is perfectly absorbed, it must be removed gradually from the fire as it was advanced, and thus the picture is completed. Defects may be afterwards mended by putting wax at the back of such parts as seem wanting, and again advancing the picture to the fire.

This manner of painting Mr. Muntz assures us, is susceptible of all the boldness, freedom, and delicacy of any other whatsoever, the colours are more bright, not liable to fade or change, unaffected by damps, nor subject to fall in shivers from the canvass ; besides, the picture has not that glossy surface which prevent its being viewed in every light.

We shall not presume to determine the merits of his performance, as we have seen none of his pieces finished in this manner ; but if what he affirms be exact, and we have no reason to doubt it, this seems to be a discovery that may be very useful to painters in general, but particularly to the painters in crayons and water-colours ; for they will, by this means, have an easy expeditious method of fixing their colours.

ART. IV. *Fragments of Ancient Poetry, collected in the Highlands of Scotland, and translated from the Galic or Erse Language.*
8vo. Hamilton and Balfour.

THE public, says the translator in his preface, may depend on the following fragments as genuine remains of ancient Scottish poetry: they are, by tradition, said to be composed in an æra of the most remote antiquity, and their diction in the original, differs widely from the style of such poems as have been written in the same language two or three centuries ago. However this be, certain it is that there is an air of barbarous wildness which runs thro' the whole; the images are romantic and local, and the landscape is generally sketched with justice and propriety. The grey mist, the howling wind, the wavy heath, the solitary tree, and the frowning mountain, are images which naturally arise to a northern bard, and such are here introduced, marked with the strokes of a fine imagination.

' I sit by the mossy fountain; on the top of the hill of winds.
One tree is rustling above me. Dark waves roll over the heath.
The lake is troubled below. The deer descend from the hill.
No hunter at a distance is seen; no whistling cow-herd is nigh.
It is mid-day: but all is silent. Sad are my thoughts as I sit alone.
Didst thou but appear, O my love, a wanderer on the heath!
thy hair floating on the wind behind thee; thy bosom heaving on the sight;
thine eyes full of tears for thy friends, whom the mist of the hill had concealed!
Thee I would comfort, my love, and bring thee to thy father's house.

' But is it she that there appears, like a beam of light on the heath?
bright as the moon in autumn, as the sun in a summer-storm?—She speaks:
but how weak her voice! like the breeze in the reeds of the pool. Hark!

' Returnest thou safe from the war? Where are thy friends, my love?
I heard of thy death on the hill; I heard and mourned thee, Shilric!

' Yes, my fair, I return; but I alone of my race. Thou shalt see them no more:
their graves I raised on the plain. But why art thou on the desert hill?
why on the heath, alone?

' Alone I am, O Shilric! alone in the winter-house. With grief for thee I expired.
Shilric, I am pale in the tomb.

' She fleets, she sails away, as grey mist before the wind—and, wilt thou not stay, my love?
Stay and behold my tears! fair thou appearest, my love! fair thou wast, when alive!

' By the mossy fountain I will sit; on the top of the hill of winds.
When mid-day is silent around, converse, O my love,
with

with me! come on the wings of the gale! on the blast of the mountain, come! Let me hear thy voice, as thou passest, when mid-day is silent around.'

A justness, and yet a luxuriancy of painting may be perceived in this specimen, and a proper skill in the translator. But whether the whole of this collection should be entitled Scottish poetry in particular, or Celtic in general, is what is not so apparent. The two heroes of these poems, viz. Fingal and Oskian his son, are universally the heroes in all the Celtic poetry yet remaining, and those countries where that original language is still preserved claim those very heroes as their countrymen. Among the Irish, for instance, Fin, the son of Gaul, whom the Highlanders call Fingal, and Usheen his son, who is here called Oskian, are the principal personages in all their carrols. Now the translator is here at a loss to ascertain the æra of those pieces of poetry; but Nennius ascribes the age of Fin to be about an hundred years before the arrival of St. Patrick in Ireland; from whence we may gather, first, that these poems were probably originally borrowed from the Irish, and, secondly, that they are of a much later date than our translator seems to imagine.

If we compare the stile of these also with the Edda of Iceland, we shall find the latter much more simple, and bearing the marks of greater barbarism and antiquity; yet this piece is by all acknowledged to have been composed not above eight hundred years ago. But to consider the subject merely in a critical light, there are some passages scattered through these fragments, that are truly sublime.

'Alone, on the sea-beat rock, my daughter was heard to complain. Frequent and loud were her cries; nor could her father relieve her. All night I stood on the shore, All night I heard her cries. Loud was the wind; and the rain beat hard on the side of the mountain. Before morning appeared, her voice was weak. It died away, like the evening-breeze among the grass of the rocks. Spent with grief she expired. O lay me soon by her side.

'When the storms of the mountain come; when the north lifts the waves on high; I sit by the sounding shore, and look on the fatal rock. Often by the setting moon I see the ghosts of my children. Indistinct, they walk in mournful conference together. Will none of you speak to me?—But they do not regard their father.' Again,

'Thou wert swift, O Morar! as a roe on the hill; terrible as a meteor of fire. Thy wrath was as the storm of December. Thy sword in battle, as lightning in the field. Thy voice was like

like a stream after rain; like thunder on distant hills. Many fell by thy arm; they were consumed in the flames of thy wrath.

‘But when thou returnedst from war, how peaceful was thy brow! Thy face was like the sun after rain; like the moon in the silence of night; calm as the breast of the lake when the loud wind is laid.

‘Narrow is thy dwelling now; dark the place of thine abode. With three steps I compass thy grave, O thou who wast so great before! Four stones with their heads of moss are the only memorial of thee. A tree with scarce a leaf, long grass which whistles in the wind, mark to the hunter’s eye the grave of the mighty Morar.’

The boldness of the painting, and the strength of the metaphors are not peculiar to this collection alone, but to the incipient efforts of every nation whatsoever in poetry. All our complex ideas of reflection, when we examine them closely, will be found to be metaphors; when the language is therefore forming, several metaphors are made, some of which are rejected in time, and others grow so familiar, that they no longer appear as such: thus we see, that barbarous nations are obliged to express their reflex ideas by metaphor, not from a redundancy but a want of language.

ART. V. *Remarks on the Military Operations of the English and French Armies, commanded by his Royal Highness the Duke of Cumberland, and Marshal Saxe, during the Campaign of 1747. To which are added, 1. Military Principles and Maxims drawn from the Remarks. 2. The Siege of Bergen-op-Zoom. By an Officer. 8vo. Pr. 3s. Becket.*

THE work before us was written by a French officer, present at all the operations he describes. It contains a good deal of military knowledge, and shews a readiness of wit and solidity of judgment, which may prove useful and entertaining to gentlemen skilled in the art of war. As for us, we perused it with that languor and indifference, that ever accompanies the drudgery of toiling through a subject one does not perfectly understand. Topographical descriptions, however clearly expressed in words, are at the best but dry and obscure to a common reader, when not elucidated by plans. The faintest sketch of the pencil would convey more distinct ideas than whole volumes wrote with the eloquence of Cicero. Of this the author was sensible, and for that reason annexed a map of the countries he describes; but the translator would seem to think

think otherwise; and has therefore omitted to insert the plans and maps to which he refers the reader in every page. We are afraid that, besides this blunder, he has committed many trespasses against the purity of his mother tongue, and the sense of his original. Would the author, for instance, who seems to be a good writer, explain *hillocks* by calling them *flats*, which is a direct contradiction in terms? Would he call those ridges at Roefmeer, sometimes the *heights*, and sometimes the *flats* of Roefmeer, as if these words were perfectly synonymous? Would he talk of immense *casemates*, that serve for *magazines* and *subterraneans*; of a fort's *souring* the *level* of a *flat*, with twenty other matters equally absurd and unintelligible?

Whatever errors the translator has introduced, the work is still valuable on account of the minute and accurate description of the battle of Lawfelt; the remarks on the conduct of the commanders; the general maxims deduced from thence, and the explicit detail of the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom. As the errors charged upon both the commanders, with respect to the movements that brought on the battle, the disposition of the armies when the engagement began, and the conduct of the generals in the action at Lawfelt, would be unintelligible, without the whole preceding description of the country, we must content ourselves with quoting the following maxims:

‘ 1. However near an army may be to the camp they intend to take, and however far the enemy’s army may be from hindering them, they ought to make no unnecessary delay, because the enemy may suddenly draw near it by forced marches.

‘ 2. Another maxim is, never to send off a detached body, unless you keep very near them, that you may be able to send a body of troops to their assistance, more considerable than that which the enemy can send to attack them, and cut off their retreat; and also have it continually in your power to know the smallest motions of the enemy, and always be apprehensive lest they steal marches. Another rule is,

‘ 3. When a general carries on an offensive war, he ought to endeavour to besiege that place which, if taken, will have the most important consequences. All his proceedings, therefore, ought to tend to that object, and not to make useless conquests, which serve only to weaken the army, and to waste time.

‘ The danger which we ran in the plain of Maestricht, on the 1st of July, shews,

‘ 4. That it ought never to be expected, that we may be able to regain by forced marches, those which we have lost by our own negligence.

‘ 3. The

‘ 5. The error of the enemy in not passing the Demer, shews, that an army upon the defensive, marching to a camp which they think themselves sure of gaining, ought nevertheless, when an opportunity offers, to engage a body of troops that happens not to be supported, because that action alone may change the defensive into offensive.

‘ 6. The fault of the enemy, in not attacking us on the 1st of July in the morning, shews, that when an army is on its march to support a detached corps; and that it is morally impossible it can be arrived, one ought not hastily to give credit to any circumstances, that may make it seem likely that the army is arrived, as the enemy believed that ours was come up, when they saw the king upon the flat. In such cases, they ought not to delay to attack the detached corps with what troops are at hand, although the rest should not be come up. It is enough that they are superior to the detachment, which ought to be briskly attacked before the rest of their army have time to come up.

7. The fault committed by the left of the allies, shews, how essential it is to know the country, and that the columns march abreast of each other. The same want of foresight and conduct, which brought the two armies together in the plain of Maeftricht, was observable in our conduct on the day of battle. We left a large body of troops and much artillery behind us useless; our design being to attack by the left and by the center, we did not fortify them; we did not cause Remst to be cannonaded, and our general, always in the opinion that the enemy would retire, makes Lawfelt be attacked by only eight battalions. After the battle was gained, we did not act a whit more prudently. On the other side, the enemy neglected to attack us in the morning, trusting to the goodness of their post, which was fortified with good villages, but ill chosen, as their army could be cut in two; and they did not in the least follow the nature of the ground in their positions. One only of their generals behaved with conduct, and by a quick and judicious motion, saved their left. To the foregoing maxims, we may add the following.

‘ 8. It is not enough, that the right and left of an army be well protected, and the center defended by good villages. It ought also to be considered, whether the retreat of each body can be well secured in case of misfortune; and whether, if the enemy penetrate in the center, as happened at Lawfelt, he may not cut the army in two.

‘ 9. The troops ought always to be placed on the ground where they may be useful, and the corps of M. d’Ann was very ill placed.

‘ 10. When

‘ 10. When an army intends to engage, it ought not, however, under pretence of securing its retreat, to leave behind a body so numerous, as was that of M. de St. Germain, because often on that body, less or more, may depend the loss or gain of the battle.

‘ 11. Most commonly, however strong a village may be, when it is attacked by a vigorous infantry, it is forced, and the troops that are behind believe themselves lost, which is a great advantage to an army that attacks.

‘ 12. When we propose to attack the enemy’s army at any point, we ought to fortify that part of our line which is opposite to it.

‘ 13. We ought never to imagine, that in an open country, however near an enemy’s army may be to a fortified place, it will think of retiring, when nothing separates it from the other army.

‘ 14. When one wants to penetrate by any point, and to attack a village, he ought to send at first a sufficient number of troops to carry it at once, and at the same time attack the troops that reinforce the said village, that do greater mischief than the troops who are inclosed in it: and before the attack, the hedges of the village ought to be beat down by cannon, especially if it is an inclosed village, which is the case with almost all those in the territory of Liege.

‘ 15. It is always better to attack than to be attacked; but when one is on the defensive, all the posts by which any opposition can be made, ought to be seized, by which the enemy’s forces will be divided; and such was Montenaken for the enemy.

‘ 16. It is of importance to know the moment when a battle is lost, and then to act without delay to facilitate the retreat, as was done by M. Ligonier, in the most prudent manner.

‘ 17. When an army is broke in the center, it is almost always beat. It is then that the greatest efforts ought to be made to augment the disorder. If both wings are not defeated, that which is not broke ought to be attacked with vigour, and its retreat cut off. When an opportunity so favourable as that of Lawfelt offers, the vigour ought to be doubled, and the smallest time lost is very precious.

‘ 18. When an enemy wants to retreat, it is always customary with them to cover it with a body of irregulars, who, on the contrary, seem to have an intention of attacking. I approve of this method.

‘ 19. In battles, certain quick well-concerted motions, are of the utmost importance, as to them is often owing the gaining of

a whole attack. Of this kind was the motion practised by M. Ligonier, when he ordered the flank of our cavalry to be attacked.

‘ 20. The principal object of a whole body of cavalry, which marches against another body, is to make their utmost efforts to take them in flank. Which soever has the happiness to effect that motion, is certain of beating the other. It is consequently the same with squadron and squadron, which shews the advantage of small advanced guards.

‘ 21. A general officer ought always to have resolution enough to make representations to the commander in chief, and to refuse to attack, when he is morally certain he shall be beat.

‘ 22. When an army is covered by a height or curtain, the smallest body of troops appear formidable, as the six columns of the duke of Broglie appeared to the enemy.

‘ 23. When troops march to attack a village, the precaution ought always to be taken, to recommend separately to the commanders of each corps, to cause the breaches by which the troops enter to be enlarged, that those which follow may enter in order of battle, or they themselves, if they are repulsed, may retire in that manner.’

This extract, we conceive, will prove more useful and entertaining to our military readers, than if we had amused them with remarks of our own, and a critique upon the author, of which they may possibly be as indifferent judges, as we profess ourselves of the art of war.

ART. VI. *A Dissertation on Ancient Tragedy.* By Dr. Franklin.

410.

THE public has long waited with impatience for an account of the ancient drama, from a gentleman who has so happily succeeded in translating the prince of the ancient dramatic poets; and it is with pleasure we can assure our readers, their expectations will not be disappointed. However difficult it may seem, to give an air of novelty to a subject so threadbare and exhausted, the learned author of this dissertation has rendered it equally entertaining and instructive, by a more uniform, accurate, and complete history of the rise and progress of tragedy; of its object, parts, properties, and conduct; and of the character, learning, religion, politics, and other circumstances of the people before whom it was represented, than has hitherto been exhibited; unless we except the *Διδασκαλία*, or Institutes, that

that probably invaluable treatise of the Stagyrite, long lost to posterity. He justly observes, that, exaggerated on the one hand by the extravagant encomiums of injudicious learning, and debased on the other by the rash censures of modern petulance, the real and intrinsic merit of ancient tragedy, hath never been thoroughly known, or candidly examined. To disclose this fairly and candidly, our author begins with an account of the origin of tragedy, in which we shall endeavour to follow him, as far as is consistent with the limits assigned us in an article.

In its infancy, tragedy, like every other production of human art, was mean, feeble, and contemptible. The name alone remains to reflect any light on its original nature, and to inform us that it owed its birth to religion, as did every other species of poetry. Tragedy (*Τραγῶς ὠδή*) or the Song of the Goat, in our author's opinion, derives its name from the sacrifices of that animal, the destroyer of vines, made to Bacchus their inventor and cultivator. In process of time the rural sacrifice became a festival, and assumed all the pomp of a religious ceremony: poets were employed by the magistrates to compose hymns, or songs, for the occasion, which, from thence, were called tragedies. It was probably about this period that Thespis introduced an improvement, relieving the chorus, or band of singers, by a person who recited part of some well-known history or fable. What this actor repeated between the songs was called an episode, or additional part, consisting frequently of different adventures void of all connection. Thus the chorus, originally the whole, now degenerated into the least significant and important part of the performance. The praises of Bacchus were altogether forgot, or but slightly attended to, while the ears of the audience were open only to fables, or stories, that had the powerful charm of novelty to recommend them. Hence the proverbial saying, *ὅθεν πρὸς Διόνυσον*; this is nothing to Bacchus.

From this time to that of Æschylus all is doubt, conjecture, and obscurity. We have the names of several poets who flourished during this interval, and of some of their works; but nothing farther. It is probable they contributed but little to the culture or improvement of tragedy, which was, in a manner, new created from a rude chaos, digested into form, and moulded into beauty, by the great Æschylus. He first introduced dialogues, by the addition of a second personage, threw the whole fable into action, and restored the chorus to its ancient dignity. He improved the scenery and decorations, brought his actors into a regular and well-constructed theatre, raised his heroes on the buskin, invented the masques, and introduced splendid ha-

bits with long trains, that gave an air of dignity and majesty to the performance, superadding every grace of sentiment, diction, and action. Henceforward we see tragedy treading closely in the steps of Epic poetry. Every part of the epopée was introduced into the drama, while, at the same time, it retained several ornaments peculiar to itself; whence the admirers of the stage conclude, that perfection in tragedy is more difficult to be attained than in Epic poetry: an observation which, however, is contradicted by the experience of all ages and countries. The moderns, in particular, have produced many excellent tragedies, but only two poems, among them deserve the name of Epic. Homer may nevertheless be deemed the source and fountain of the ancient drama. 'From him the tragedians draw the plan, construction, and conduct of their fables, and not unfrequently the fable itself; to him they applied for propriety of manners, character, sentiment, and diction.'

From this æra then, says our author, we are to consider tragedy as an elegant and noble structure, built according to the rules of art, symmetry, and proportion; where every part was in itself fair, firm, and compact, the beauty contributing to the utility, strength, and duration of the edifice. Sophocles and Euripides carefully studied the plan drawn out by Æschylus, and, by the force of genius and judgment, improved it to its highest perfection; from which time it gradually again declined to the introduction of the Roman drama.

Next our author proceeds to the different parts of ancient tragedy. He begins with remarking upon that absurd and unwarrantable division of the Greek tragedy, into acts, made by modern editors and commentators. Neither Athenæus, he observes, or any of the other of the ancient writers, who have given quotations from the Greek plays, mention the act where the several passages are to be found; nor does the word *act* once occur in that treatise of Aristotle, which gives so exact a definition of every other part of the drama; for as to the word *δραμα*, it signifies the whole performance, and, consequently, no particular part of it, though translated *act* by modern writers. Vossius calls the chorus, *Pars fabulæ post actum, vel inter actum, et actum*; and Barnes agrees with him, in assigning the use of the chorus to divide the acts; 'though it is evident, (according to our learned author) that the business of the chorus was to prevent any such unnatural pause or vacancy in the drama, as the division into acts must necessarily produce.' This, however, is what we do not so fully comprehend; for if the ancient tragedians never thought of dividing their pieces into acts, where could be the necessity of chorusses to prevent a pause which could not possibly

sibly happen, in a series of uninterrupted dialogue. Our author farther remarks, and with great truth, that if we take the word *act*, in the sense required by the modern use of it, we shall find it in the Greek tragedies composed sometimes of a single scene, and sometimes of half a dozen; and if the songs, or intermedes of the chorus, are to determine the number of acts, the play consists not always of five, but at one time of three, at another of seven or eight acts. The *Ajax* of Sophocles, for instance, has five chorusses, which are thus unequally divided. To the first act are two, to the second one; the third has only one chorus; the fourth, one; and the fifth, none at all. The *Trachinæ* again has six; the *Electra* but three; and the *Philoctetes* but one regular song, or intermede, in the whole play. If it be granted, therefore, that wherever we meet with *Strophe* and *Antistrophe*, there only the chorus is sung, nothing can be more absurd than to make those songs dividers of the acts, when it is evident, that the chorus is sung only as occasion offered, and the circumstances of the drama required, which accounts for the irregularity of their number and situation. However, it must be acknowledged, that Horace has laid down five acts, as the exact number of different parts in a tragedy.

Neve minor, neu sit quinto productior actu.

But this seems to have been an innovation peculiar to the Roman theatre, and not any ways borrowed from the practice of the Greeks. Such are the sentiments of our author, in which we cannot altogether agree with him: for besides, that the Romans derived all their dramatical performances from the Greeks, nay, in a manner translated from them, we may venture to affirm from the practice of their comic writers, that the dividing into acts was not unknown to the Greeks, tho' at what period this improvement was introduced, cannot well be ascertained. The analogy is so strong among all theatrical pieces, the same propriety of character, time, and place to be preserved, that we may conclude, that what became a rule in the one could not be wholly neglected in the rest; and that the division into acts would just, for the same reasons, be introduced into tragedy as into comedy, namely, to relieve the audience.

After defining the different parts of tragedy, viz. the prologue, episode, and exode, our author proceeds to make a variety of ingenious reflections on the chorus, most of which are, however, to be met with in other critics. What he says of the verse, recitation, and music of antient tragedy, is extremely curious. Here he shews how careful the Greeks were of fitting the expression to the sentiment, the sound to the idea to be conveyed; how solicitous about the quantity of syllables; the variety

of feet, dialect, and appropriating different words to different species of poetry; but all of them occasionally used to beautify the drama. In these particulars the Greek is greatly superior to all other languages, the different dialects affording an infinite variety, and vast compass of melody. As the poet and musician were likewise united among the Greeks, their recitatives had a certain justness of expression and cadence, unknown to the moderns, and, indeed, inconsistent with the genius of modern music, so broken with divisions, variations, and repetitions, as to be altogether improper for the expression of poetry.

It is the opinion of our author, that the theatrical declamation of the ancients was composed and wrote in notes, and that the whole play, except the commoi and chorusses, were in a kind of recitative, like modern operas, accompanied with music throughout. As the quantity of every word, the time, duration, and rhythmus of every syllable was ascertained by the poet, little more was required in the actor than a good voice and just ear. Thus the business of a dramatic writer among the ancients, was of greater extent, required a wider circle of knowledge, and far more extensive abilities, than the present age demands or expects from him. It was necessary he should be master of every species of verse, completely skilled in music, able to direct all the evolutions, movements, or what may be called the dances of the chorus, and endowed with that exquisite sensibility of taste in the two sister arts, so seldom the gift of nature, and never to be attained by art.

We are next favoured with many curious remarks on the construction of the Greek theatre, the scenes, machines, and decorations. Our author concludes his account of the ancient masque with observing, that after all that can be said in its favour, it is scarce possible to defend the practice. The face is certainly the best index of the mind, and the passions are as forcibly expressed by the features, as by the words and gesture of the performer. What would the voice, the action, the elegant symmetry of our British Roscius avail, without that astonishing expression of countenance that accompanies every passion, every motion of the body, and gives him that superiority over all his cotemporaries, and, indeed, the actors of any other age or country. Our author then proceeds to ascertain the direct time when tragedy flourished in Greece; the circumstances that contributed to its rise and progress; the character, genius, and temper of the people; with a great number of other particulars, which the reader will peruse with abundance of satisfaction. We shall conclude this article with the character he has given of the three great

great tragic writers, which will afford an agreeable specimen of his stile, taste, and manner.

‘Æschylus, (says he) is a bold, nervous, animated writer; his imagination fertile, but licentious; his judgment true, but ungoverned; his genius lively, but uncultivated; his sentiments noble and sublime, but at the same time wild, irregular, and frequently fantastick; his plots, for the most part, rude and inartificial; his scenes unconnected, and ill-placed; his language generally poignant and expressive, though in many places turgid and obscure, and even too often degenerating into fustian and bombast; his characters strongly marked, but all partaking of that wild fierceness, which is the characteristic of their author; his peculiar excellency was in raising terror and astonishment, in warm and descriptive scenes of war and slaughter: if we consider the state of the drama when he undertook to reform and improve it, we shall behold him with admiration; if we compare him with his two illustrious successors he hides his diminished head, and appears far less conspicuous: were we to draw a parallel between dramatic poetry and painting, we should perhaps stile him the Julio Romano of ancient tragedy.

‘The Athenians erected a sumptuous monument to Sophocles, on which was engraved a swarm of bees, in allusion to the name generally given him on account of his verses, which are indeed wonderfully soft and harmonious, or, as a nobler poet even than Sophocles himself expresses it, sweeter than honey, or the honeycomb.

‘Sophocles may with great truth be called the prince of ancient dramatic poets; his fables, at least of all those tragedies now extant, are interesting and well-chosen, his plots regular and well-conducted, his sentiments elegant, noble, and sublime, his incidents natural, his diction simple, his manners and characters striking, equal and unexceptionable, his chorusses well adapted to the subject, his moral reflections pertinent and useful, and his numbers in every part to the last degree sweet and harmonious; the warmth of his imagination is so tempered by the perfection of his judgment, that his spirit however animated never wanders into licentiousness, whilst at the same time the fire of his genius seldom suffers the most uninteresting parts of his tragedy to sink into coldness and insipidity: his peculiar excellence seems to lie in the descriptive; and, exclusive of his dramatic powers, he is certainly a greater poet than either of his illustrious rivals: were I to draw a similitude of him, as I did of Æschylus, from painting, I should say that his ordonnance was so just, his figures so well grouped and contrasted, his colours so glowing and natural, all his pieces in short executed in so bold

and masterly a stile, as to wrest the palm from every other hand, and point him out as the Raphael of the ancient drama.'

'In such high esteem were the works of this poet, that many noble Athenians being taken prisoners at Syracuse, the unfortunate captives were all put to death, except those who could repeat any passages from the plays of Euripides; these men, and these alone they pardoned, caressed, treated with the utmost respect, and afterwards set them at liberty.

'Euripides, fortunately for his own character as well as for posterity, is come down to us more perfect and entire than either of his cotemporaries; his merit therefore is more easily ascertained; his fables are generally interesting, his plots frequently irregular and artificial, his characters sometimes unequal, but for the most part striking and well contrasted, his sentiments remarkably fine, just and proper, his diction soft, elegant, and persuasive; he abounds much more in moral apothegms and reflections than Æschylus or Sophocles, which, as they are not always introduced with propriety, give some of his tragedies a stiff and scholastic appearance, with which the severer critics have not failed to reproach him: it is most probable, however, that in this he complied with the taste of his age, and in obedience to the dictates of his friend and master Socrates, who, we may suppose, thought it no disgrace to this favourite poet, to deviate from the rigid rules of the drama, in order to render it more subservient to the noble purposes of piety and virtue; there is besides in his dialogue a didactic and argumentative turn, which favours strongly of the Socratic disputant, and which probably procured him the name of the philosopher of the theatre.

'It is said of Sophocles, that he painted men as they ought to be; of Euripides, that he painted them as they were; a quaint remark, which I shall leave the critics to comment and explain, only observing, that the latter is much more familiar than the former, descends much lower into private life, and consequently lets down in some measure the dignity of the buskin, which in Sophocles is always carefully supported: there are some scenes in Euripides where the ideas are so coarse, and the expression so low and vulgar, as, if translated with the utmost caution, would perhaps greatly shock the delicacy and refinement of modern manners; the feeling reader notwithstanding will be amply recompensed by that large portion of the tender and pathetic, the peculiar excellency of this poet, which is diffused throughout his works; his chorusses are remarkably beautiful and poetical, they do not, indeed, as Aristotle has observed, always naturally arise from and correspond with the incidents of the drama; this fault however his chorusses generally make
amends

amends for by the harmony of their numbers, and the many fine moral and religious sentiments which they contain.

‘Upon the whole, though Euripides had not perhaps so sublime a genius as Æschylus, or a judgment so perfect as Sophocles, he seems to have written more to the heart than either of them; and if I were to place him with the other two in the school of painters, I should be inclined, from the softness of his pencil, to call him the Correggio of the ancient drama.’

Such is the performance before us, in which the ingenious author has unhappily blended passion and prejudice against certain contemporary writers, who deserve well of the public, with learned observations, sensible remarks, and judicious reflections on the drama of the ancients.

ART. VII. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Sir Thomas Chitty, Knt. Lord Mayor of London: Shewing the true Causes and Reasons why so small a Number of Men has accepted of the great and extraordinary Encouragements of the late Guildhall Subscription, and pointing out a certain and most effectual Method whereby our Government may, at all times, procure a sufficient Number of Men to fight our Battles, both by Sea and Land, without any compulsive Methods, or Advance-money; and without distressing our Manufactures, or at all hindering the Cultivation of our Lands. By an English Merchant of London.* 8vo. Price 2s. 6d. Scott.

HAD this writer paid a little more attention to stile, orthography, concinnity, precision, and brevity; had he, in one word, compressed his notions into six-penny worth of tolerable English, they might be read with profit. It is pity that a gentleman, who seems capable of thinking clearly, and reflecting justly, should not be able to express his sentiments intelligibly, or of placing them in that order and point of view that alone can attract attention and insure regard. Were there not so many errors in point of grammar, we should attribute the great number of words mis-spelled to the hurry of the press, and the blunders of the compositor; but both together convince us, that the fault lies in the author, who appears to be possessed of a larger portion of understanding than of learning. The reasons he assigns for the little success of the Guildhall subscription, for enlisting men into his majesty's service, are sensible and judicious. In all countries in the world men may be compared, he says, to wool, or any other staple commodity: they will bear a price in proportion to their abundance, or scarcity. Every one, acquainted with the internal condition of these kingdoms, must

must know, that we never had a sufficient number of men to cultivate the lands, to carry on our manufactures, and at the same time to supply our fleets and armies in time of war. This is a ruinous disadvantage, under which we have laboured for some centuries past, that alone has prevented our making that considerable figure, and acquiring that degree of wealth, power, and dominion, which we otherwise might. Wealth, it is acknowledged, must be acquired by trade, and this will ever be proportioned to the number of inhabitants. The commerce of Great Britain is arrived at its *apex*, its utmost extent; and can possibly receive no addition, except by such means as increase the number of the inhabitants. Where labourers are scarce, the price of labour will be high. When wages are exorbitant, the price of manufactures must bear pace, and consequently the sale diminish in proportion as the merchandize of any nation is underfold by the merchandize of any other. Let us consider the advantages arising from our conquests, and the addition of immense countries. Many will imagine, that those vast acquisitions must render Great Britain infinitely more powerful and considerable, and her trade and navigation more extensive, by opening new markets for the exportation of her manufactures. But this kind of reasoning is false and delusive, in the opinion of our author. Hands will be wanting to improve the advantage, without which a thousand or a million of acres of land in North America, will be of no more real value than the same extent and number of acres in the grand Pacific Ocean. If there neither are hands to cultivate the ground, nor mouths to consume its produce, what can the land avail? Besides, it is not the want of foreign commodities to be manufactured at home, or of foreign markets to purchase those manufactures, that are wanting; but labourers to work at such a price, that we shall not be underfold by every nation in Europe.

Sound policy dictates, that every nation should be rendered as populous as it is possible. It is a vulgar error to suppose, that any country can be overstocked with inhabitants, or contain more than will find employment, if the people be commercial. What is the reason that land in and round the city of London is so much more valuable, than in places remote from the capital and centre of trade? Is it not solely owing to the great number of inhabitants? Suppose that half the inhabitants of the city of London, and its jurisdiction, were removed into the Highlands of Scotland, what would then become of the lands and houses? You will probably answer, they would fall one half of their present value; but this is a mistake: they would really fall more than three fourths, as half the houses would

would have no inhabitants, and the remaining, that were occupied, would sink in value, from the facility of procuring empty houses. Why, pursues our author, do so many millions of acres remain uncultivated in England, but that hands are wanting, and the price of labour so high? What is the reason why our woollen manufacture has not yet attained the utmost degree of perfection, but the deficiency of hands, and the exorbitant wages required by labourers? How comes it to pass, that there is not that order, regularity, and subordination maintained among the manufacturing poor of this as of other countries; that our poor are in their morals more loose, dissolute, and abandoned; that we daily hear of combinations among journeymen in manufacturing towns to extort exorbitant wages, without ever becoming richer; nay, on the contrary, growing more idle, drunken, and debauched, in proportion to the increased wages? All this is owing to a scarcity of hands. The premiums given to soldiers and seamen are higher than was ever known. With respect to navigation in particular, we give fifty-five shillings and three pounds per month to a common sailor on board a merchantman; whereas the Swedes, Danes, Dutch, and even the French, pay scarce a third of that price. This our author attributes to the scarcity of hands, though we cannot help taking into the account the abundance of money, and particularly of that imaginary wealth which consists in paper-credit, bank-notes, and India-bonds. To remedy these evils, a general naturalization must be granted, and the industrious of all nations and religions not only permitted, but invited by rewards and encouragements to settle among us. He then instances the conduct of that wise prince Edward III. whose indulgence to foreigners of all sects and religions laid the foundation of our woollen and silk manufactures. He instances the example of Holland, raised from a barren spot, gained out of the sea, to a powerful rich commonwealth, merely by the liberty of conscience afforded, and the protection shewn to Jews, Armenians, and even industrious convicts. He shews the unhappy consequences to France of the violence offered to the Protestants in the reign of Lewis XIV. and the still greater advantage that might have accrued to Great Britain, had she rightly improved that fair opportunity of advancing her manufactures, by increasing the number of her people. He obviates the supposed dangers that would result to the established religion; and that weak argument, that we deprive the natives of bread by giving encouragement to foreigners. In a word, he demonstrates, that the difficulty of obtaining recruits, of increasing our trade, of cultivating our lands, of lowering the price of our manufactures, are all owing to the narrow spirit and ignorant zeal, which deprives

prives the nation of multitudes of diligent, ingenious, foreign artists and labourers, who, in course of time, would, by inter-marriages and long residence, become faithful and useful subjects.

To dismiss the article, we are of opinion, that had this pamphlet been put into the hands of any person capable of retrenching, and judiciously lopping off the exuberances, it contains matter enough to deserve well of the public, and procure a place among the best political productions of the season.

In the appendix we find an apology for the Jews, or rather an answer to all the pamphlets wrote against that people, while the naturalization-bill was depending; but this our limits will not permit us to give an account of, though it contains some arguments that merit attention.

ART. VIII. *A candid Historical Account of the Hospital for the Reception of exposed and deserted young Children; representing the present Plan of it as productive of many Evils, and not adapted to the Genius and Happiness of this Nation. Shewing, on the other hand, the great Importance of the Establishment, if put under proper Regulations, as the most effectual Means of preserving the Lives of a great Number of such Infants as have usually perished within the Bills of Mortality. With a Proposal for carrying a new Design into Execution. To which is added, a Letter from a Country Gentleman to a Governor of the Hospital: Containing many Observations relating to Foundlings born, educated, or employed in the Country; collected from real Facts: With his Opinion concerning the Amendments necessary.* 8vo. Pr. 2s. 6d. Woodfall.

FEW writers are actuated by the same motives as the benevolent author of this performance. Universal good-will and philanthropy seem alone the spurs to his industry, while vanity, ambition, and avarice, are the secret springs of action in other men. The Magdalene, the Asylum, the Marine Society, and now the Foundling Hospital, have each of them employed his thoughts, in a manner that reflects credit on his humanity and public spirit. We cannot, therefore, but regard with tenderness the blemishes of the writer, while we admire the virtues of the man, and bestow our applause where perhaps the severity of criticism might require censure. In the first chapter we meet with an account of the origin of the Foundling Hospital, a scheme first projected in the year 1739, by Mr. Coram, and supported by the generous subscriptions of a great number of ladies of the first quality. The royal charter for the hospital bears

bears date the 17th of October this year: the duke of Bedford was nominated president in the charter; lord viscount Beauchamp, and other persons of distinction, vice-presidents. A variety of hints for establishing the charity were collected from the regulations of foreign hospitals, and an act of parliament was passed the following sessions for confirming and enlarging the powers granted by his majesty to the governors and guardians of the hospital, to enable them to execute the good purposes of the charter. The object of this charity was as pleasing as it was new, and the zeal of individuals ran high in proportion to its novelty. Vast subscriptions were daily received: the hospital and chapel were built, and these adorned by the masterly works of several ingenious artists, who cheerfully contributed their assistance to protect the most innocent, weak, and helpless part of the human species. This happened in the year 1741; but it was not before the year 1756 that the parliament took the charity under its immediate protection. It was then resolved in the house of commons, that, to render the institution of lasting and general utility, all the children which should be offered, under a certain age, were to be received; and, to render it more generally useful and efficacious, that proper places, in all the different counties and districts of the kingdom, should be opened for the reception of exposed and deserted children. Our author seems to think, that before this period the institution was insufficient to answer the intention, and now the parliament rendered the plan too extensive. Ten thousand pounds were voted for the support of the hospital, and all children not exceeding two months old ordered to be received. In the space of a month four hundred and twenty-five children were presented; and the parliament, perceiving the insufficiency of the aid granted, voted, the ensuing sessions, thirty thousand pounds more, and extended the age of the children to six months. In consequence five thousand six hundred and eighteen were received in the space of eighteen months, out of which number two thousand three hundred and eleven died, or at the rate of forty-one in every hundred. Few of these children exceeded the age of six months, and most of them were newly born: whence our author very justly concludes, that it is not poverty altogether, so much as an indifference about their offspring, that induces people to send their children to the Foundling Hospital; for it appears, that after they have kept them a little time, and felt the joys of paternal affection, they are not easily prevailed on to part with them at all.

It was now perceived, that the carrying children from the country to the Foundling Hospital was become a sort of traffic,
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by connivance between parish-officers and certain vagrants, who undertook, for a small reward, to ease them of the burthen of poor infants. *The institution was, however, considered by parliament as of too serious and important a nature to receive prejudice from such rumours. Accordingly the sum of forty thousand pounds was granted for the year 1758; and again, fifty thousand pounds for the following year, which it was supposed would be sufficient for the support of five thousand eight hundred and twenty-five children then alive, and for four thousand two hundred which it was presumed would be received in the year 1759. So large a grant was an irrefragable proof of the tenderness of the legislature; but it appeared extraordinary to some persons, that, after money was voted for the reception of children from all parts of the kingdom, it should immediately after be resolved, “That the appointing places in the several counties, ridings, or divisions in the kingdom, for the first reception of exposed and deserted children, will be attended with many evil consequences; and that the sending children from the country to the hospital for exposed and deserted young children in London, is attended with many evil consequences, and ought to be prevented.” These resolutions indicated a design of procuring a law to restrain extending the plan of the hospital too far; a law which our author seems to think necessary, though he couches his sentiments in such a manner as renders it almost impossible to discover his real meaning. We have, indeed, with the utmost difficulty, made this short abstract of the progress of the hospital from his historical narrative; which is fraught with so many obscure reflections, so many shrewd half-born inuendoes, as really render Mr. H. a very hard and difficult author, upon the most easy and familiar subjects.

We are next favoured with “Reasons against the present plan of the hospital, respecting secrecy, supposed murders of infants, idleness, and calculations of expence compared with that created by the children of the poor under their own parents in the country.” Here we believe a number of arguments are urged against the present plan of the hospital, though we cannot positively affirm that to be the author’s meaning, so mysteriously has he treated the subject. Then follow objections to the present plan, drawn from the consideration of our common liberty, and the duties of filial piety and parental love; arguments to prove that profitable marriages are not encouraged and promoted by the Foundling institution; reflections on illegitimacy: and some reasons, shewing the improbability of improving the manners of the common people, or of lowering the poor’s rate, by such an institution. But lest the argument

ment produced against the present plan of the hospital, might be urged against the institution upon any footing, he urges a variety of reasons for supporting it upon a limited plan, confined wholly to the capital, as the only expedient to prevent abuses disgraceful to humanity and a civilized people. For this reason our author proposes the following plan of an hospital, which we quote for the satisfaction of our readers.

Article I. That the hospital be called the Orphans Hospital, and that the children received into it be denominated orphans.

Article II. The overseers and masters of the workhouse, of every parish within the bills of mortality, respectively, shall have liberty to send all the infants who are brought to them for that purpose, or such as are found deserted, to the hospital in Lambs-conduit-fields, on the conditions hereafter mentioned; the parties making such discovery of themselves, as is necessary to do justice and promote the end and design of the public.

Article III. That the several objects of the hospital be reduced to these four;

1st. Legitimate infants of very poor people, born within the bills of mortality, who, by their sickness, or having a numerous family, cannot maintain all their children.

2^d. Illegitimate infants, born as above, of parents, whose poverty, or other circumstances, disqualify them to take care of their infants.

3^d. Real orphans, born as above, or such whose parents are run away, whether legitimate or illegitimate.

4th. Infants found deserted, being left in the streets, or other places, within the bills of mortality.

Article IV. The method of delivering infants to the hospital shall be through the hands of one of the overseers and the master of the workhouse of each parish respectively.

Article V. That the age of children to be received into the hospital do not exceed twelve months: but if three of the overseers, together with the master of the workhouse, of the parish to which the child belongs, recommend any child as worthy the compassion of the governors of the hospital, the parents being notoriously poor, wicked, dead, or run away, the committee for the Foundling Hospital to be left as judges in such cases; and if the child does not exceed the age of eighteen months, the said committee of the hospital to have the liberty of receiving such child, with condition that the overseers shall enter into an obligation to take it again into their custody at the age

of four years, to be then educated and maintained, and in due time to be 'prenticed out by the said overseers, if it should be so required by the said committee of the hospital.

Article VI. That the overseers and masters of the work-houses, in their respective parishes within the bills of mortality, may send all such infant poor to the hospital, as are found to answer the account given of them, by the parties who bring them (being agreeable to the conditions herein contained), the said overseers and masters observing certain rules.

Article VII. The parties bringing the child to the overseer and master of the workhouse, shall be admitted, the same as if the father or mother brought it; provided that upon enquiry of what is set forth, concerning the child's place of birth, age, and parentage, &c. be found true, as usual in such cases.

Article VIII. That the father or mother, or other parties bringing the child to the hospital, shall be there acquainted, by a printed paper, of the reasons of taking the certificate and attestation already mentioned, namely, that it is done with a view to their more easily tracing out their children, in case they should incline to act the part of good parents, which they may be therein exhorted to do; and if they are in a capacity to nourish and rear them up, that, after the age of four years, they may receive them at the trifling charge of five shillings; the said paper also to contain the other conditions, as herein set forth.

Article IX. That the father or mother of the child, or other person deputed by them, producing the receipt given by the hospital for the child, or other satisfactory evidence from the overseers of the parish, that they have a title to demand the child, and giving satisfactory security in the sum of forty pounds, that the child shall not be burthensome to any parish, in such case the child shall be restored to them at any time, upon their paying forty shillings only, otherwise not till the child shall exceed the age of four years, as hereafter mentioned.

Article X. That any person applying any fourth month of the year, and producing the receipt of the child, and paying one shilling at the hospital, shall be informed if their child is alive or dead. And also when application is made for the reclaiming a child, the party paying one shilling, shall be immediately informed if the child is alive or dead; in order to prevent any further trouble, if the child is dead.

Article XI. That all persons, having a right of reclaiming a child, as mentioned in article the ninth, as soon as the said child is past the age of four years, the same may be restored to them under the following conditions, viz. The petition made for the child so reclaimed, (without any security given) shall lie one month; after which time (the child appearing to be alive) the party returning to the hospital, and confirming the same, the child shall be immediately sent for, and a time shall be appointed for restoring the same, the party paying only the sum of five shillings.

Article XII. That a register be kept of all the children sent to the hospital by each parish respectively, the hospital also keeping a register of the children received from each parish (to be done, both by the hospital and parishes, in a form prescribed); the same to be compared every six months, and the children who are dead, shall be accordingly marked as dead, in a column prepared, in all the register books, for that purpose.

Article XIII. The overseer and master of the workhouse, respectively, may, at all times, inform persons inquiring, what children were alive or dead, at the close of the former six months, they paying six pence each."

To conclude, we perceive in this performance of Mr. H—'s, a humane benevolent mind, solicitous about the happiness of his fellow-creatures, and earnest to render himself useful to society. We can likewise perceive in it the same spirit that dictated the *Eight Day's Journey from Portsmouth*; a fondness for abstracted reasoning, mysterious reflections, and philosophizing upon the most frivolous and trite occurrences.

ART. IX. *The Parliamentary or Constitutional History of England; being a faithful Account of all the most remarkable Transactions in Parliament, from the earliest Times to the Restoration of K. Charles II. Collected from the Records, the Journals of both Houses, original Manuscripts, scarce Speeches, and Tracts; all compared with the several contemporary Writers, and connected, throughout, with the History of the Times. By several Hands. Vol. XXII. From the Disturbances in October 1659, to the Restoration of the King, and an Adjournment of the Convention Parliament in September 1660. 8vo. Pr. 6s. Sandby.*

THIS volume teems with such variety of curious occurrences, as renders an abstract impossible in the compass of an article. No period of the English history is more interesting

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ing than the eve of the restoration: so many changes in the government, so many contending interests, such a variety of jarring schemes and projects, so much hypocrisy, cant, fanaticism and cunning, a military legislature, a preaching army, and an infatuated people, all conspire to distinguish this epoch from every other, and mark it as the most extraordinary that occurs in the annals of human nature. The army having, in the year 1659, usurped the sovereign authority, and reduced the power of the commons to a state of annihilation, begun their government with constituting what they termed a committee of safety, consisting of twenty-three persons, of whom Whitlocke was one. Circular letters were sent to each of the persons nominated to this trust, in the following form:

“Upon consideration of the present posture of affairs of this commonwealth, the general council of officers of the army have thought fit to appoint a committee of safety, for the preservation of the peace, and management of the present government thereof; as also for the preparing of a form of a future government for these nations, upon the foundation of a commonwealth, or free state: and yourself being one of the persons nominated for that purpose, we do, by their direction, hereby give you notice thereof, and desire you to repair to-morrow morning, at ten o'clock, to the Horse-Chamber in Whitehall, in order to the service aforesaid. We rest

Your faithful friends and servants.”

The first business transacted by the committee of safety was to publish a declaration from the army, containing the grounds and reasons of their proceedings; and then to appoint a sub-committee, to consider of a republican plan of government for the three nations. While these matters were in agitation, the army was alarmed by letters from general Monke in Scotland, expressing his resentment at the constraint put on the parliament, and the usurpation of the army, and threatening to use all his force in restoring the authority of the former. No answer was given to these letters; but Lambert was immediately dispatched to take the command of the forces in the north, with orders closely to watch Monke's motions. In the mean time Fleetwood, Whitlocke, and Desborough, endeavoured to keep the city of London in temper, and prevent the common council's being influenced by the letters they just received from Scotland. Here we find three very curious speeches made by these gentlemen, which strongly mark the character of the times. We shall give the lord Desborough's as a specimen.

“I was unwilling to speak any thing, so much having been spoken by those honourable persons; but somewhat I must speak
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in relation to what was hinted, and touching the commands of the committee of safety : a great sense there is upon the committee of the difficulties this nation struggles under, which are the greater, because the common enemy is in forwardness to a birth, and bringing-forth. It is the duty of all men, as Christians and as Englishmen, to value peace the greatest of outward enjoyments ; what I said may be looked upon as strange, from one brought up for several years in martial affairs ; it being conceived of us, as of some in the beginning of these troubles, that they feared nothing more than that the wars would end too soon ; it was the wickedness of those men that had such principles, rather to gratify filthy lusts in their hearts, than for any good to the commonwealth.

“ I hope I may say of the generality of the officers intrusted in this nation, that there is no outward thing more desired by them, than to live to see those blessed foundations laid, so as to secure the civil and spiritual rights of this nation ; nor is there any greater dread in them thereof, (notwithstanding that bloodshed and expence they have undergone) than that they shall not see a settlement ; yet we hope in God, in despite of the cunning of men, we shall see such a blessed peace, as the inhabitants of this nation may bless his name.

“ There is none ignorant that there are not wanting men, who, on various accounts, make it their business to hinder this so good a work ; and their design is to oppose or interrupt a work the providence of God is carrying on, to accomplish their designs.

“ It is a mercy, whatever others judge, God hath borne us witness, that we have not falsified that trust which hath been reposed in our hands. Our difficulties have been such, that the wealth of the city should not hire us to undergo them a year longer ; but we may say, we are not without a misrepresentation.

“ Some say we are setting up sectaries, this party and that party ; but if we have guile in our hearts, and have not a love to the godly people of this nation, yea, to all the people, God will find us out. God hath blessed some of us with a spirit of integrity, and there is nothing upon our hearts but the good of the whole.

“ There is a two-fold party in this commonwealth, whom God hath again and again made bow down before his people, yet are still labouring to heighten their spirits ; we have not made them slaves, (which in some places is practised in the like case) nor is it upon our spirits so to do ; yet I think it our duty not to suffer them to give laws to us, if God gives us leave to

prevent it; and though we have it not in our hearts to do any thing to distinguish, yet we are resolved never to put our hands under the feet of those we have vanquished.

“Some say we shall not have settlement till the old family comes in, which if it should enter into any of our hearts, we should be like the dog returning to his vomit, and the sow to her wallowing in the mire.

“Many, by the actings of the army, by a forcible providence they have been put upon, may think we go about to do something unworthy to this nation. This army hath been blessed seventeen years wonderfully, we have not gone about to make ourselves great, or masters of what is our neighbours, but that which the power in being hath allowed us.

“Some give out as if we were returning to a single person, and intended to debase magistracy, and trample down ministry; but God will bear us witness to the contrary: the truth of it is, we are so far from undervaluing of a government, that we always thought a bad one with peace, better than none at all.

“If peace be a great and choice blessing to be valued by all, we desire that you, with us, will take care to preserve it; we come not to court you, but only to let you know we have no design it; it was no prepared business: that of dissolving the parliament, we hope that God stood by us in it, notwithstanding there hath been many gloomy days since. The strength of an army is the unity of it, and it will be your safety and advantage to keep unity; a city divided cannot stand: you will not want assistance from the army, if interruptions come in this place, whatever calamities may be elsewhere, they will not be so great here. Your interest as Christians, your religion, your estates, are great engagements to preserve peace.

“The desire of the army is to preserve the peace; if you go about, or others countenanced by you, to disturb it, an inconvenience may fall upon you; but our desire is, you would not fling dirt on the army; but as you see the issue of their actions, so to judge of them. Many opinions may run touching our dark actions in the late alteration and disturbance. As to the first, it is evident that they had no design of their own: and in the last, if they would have complied with a few men to set them up, they needed not to have wanted respect. It is said it was only to keep eight or nine in their places; it is very well known some of us have laboured an opportunity to be quit of our commands; now it is my desire that you would follow after peace, and meddle not with affairs beyond your spheres; follow peace and holiness, and the God of peace will bless you.”

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Next we have Monk's proceedings in Scotland, his march to England, the restoration of the parliament, the proceedings of the house, a curious conference between Fleetwood and Whitlock, about inviting the king to England, Monke's letters to the parliament and city of London, votes in favour of general Monke and admiral Lawfon, with a view to keep the army and fleet under their command in good humour, Monke's arrival in London, with his speech to the parliament, an address to parliament from the sectaries in the city, a letter from Monke, dated at Whitehall, to the parliament, testifying his implicit obedience to the house, a proclamation by the parliament against Lambert, with other entertaining particulars. The following declaration from Monke to the parliament deserves to be quoted.

"It appears unto me, by what I have heard from you and the whole nation, that the peace and happy settlement of these bleeding nations, next under God, lyeth in your hands. And when I consider that wisdom, piety, and self-denial, which I have reason to be confident lodgeth in you; and how great a share of the nation's sufferings will fall upon you, in case the Lord deny us now a settlement, I am in very good hopes there will be found in you all such melting bowels towards these poor nations, and towards one another, that you will become healers and makers-up of all its woful breaches. And that such an opportunity may clearly appear to be in your hands, I thought good to assure you, and that in the presence of God, that I have nothing before my eyes but God's glory, and the settlement of these nations upon commonwealth foundations: in pursuit whereof I shall think nothing too dear; and, for my own particular, I shall throw myself down at your feet, to be anything or nothing in order to these great ends.

"As to the way of future settlement, far be it from me to impose any thing; I desire you may be in perfect freedom; only give me leave to mind you, that the old foundations are, by God's providence, so broken, that, in the eye of reason, they cannot be restored, but upon the ruin of the people of these nations, that have engaged for their rights in defence of the parliament, and the great and main ends of the covenant, for uniting and making the Lord's name one in the three nations. And also the liberty of the people's representatives in parliament will certainly be lost; for if the people find that, after so long and bloody a war against the king for breaking in upon their liberties, yet at last he must be taken in again, it will be out of question, and is most manifest, he may for the future govern by his will, dispose of parliaments and parliament-men as he pleaseth, and yet the people will never more rise for their assistance.

“ And as to the interests of this famous city, (which hath been, in all ages, the bulwark of parliaments, and unto whom I am, for their great affection, so deeply engaged) certainly it must lie in a commonwealth; that government only being capable to make them, through the Lord’s blessing, the metropolis and bank of trade for all Christendom, whereunto God and nature hath fitted them above all others.

“ And as to a government in the church, the want whereof hath been no small cause of these nations distractions, it is most manifest, that, if it be monarchical in the state, the church must follow, and prelacy must be brought in; which these nations, I know, cannot bear, and against which they have so solemnly sworn: and indeed moderate, not rigid, Presbyterian government, with a sufficient liberty for consciences truly tender, appears at present to be the most indifferent and acceptable way to the church’s settlement.

“ The main thing that seems to lie in the way is the interest of the lords, even of those lords who have shewed themselves noble indeed, by joining with the people; and, in defence of those just rights, have adventured their dearest blood and large estates. To that I shall only say, That though the state of these nations be such as cannot bear their sitting in a distinct house, yet certainly the wisdom of parliament will find out such hereditary marks of honour for them, as may make them more noble in after-ages.

“ Gentlemen, upon the whole matter, the best result that I can make at present for the peace of these nations, will be, in my opinion, that you forthwith go to sit together in parliament, in order,

1. “ To the settling the conduct of the armies of the three nations in that manner as they may be serviceable to the peace and safety of them, and not to its own and the nation’s ruin by faction and division.

“ 2. To the providing sufficient maintenance for them; that is, for the forces by land, and for the navy by sea, and all the arrears of both, and other contingencies of the government.

“ 3. To the appointing a council of state, with authority to settle the civil government and judicatories in Scotland and Ireland, and to take care for the issuing of writs for the summoning a parliament of these three nations united, to meet at Westminster the twentieth day of April next, with such qualifications as may secure the public cause we are all engaged in, and, according to such distributions as were used in the year 1654: which parliament, so called, may meet and act in freedom, for the

the more full establishing of this commonwealth without a king, single person, or house of lords.

“ 4. To a legal dissolution of this parliament, to make way for succession of parliaments.

“ And, in order to these good ends, the guards will not only willingly admit you, but faithfully, both myself and every the officers under my command; and, I believe, the officers and soldiers of the three nations will spend their blood for you and successive parliaments.

“ If your conjunction be directed to this end, you may part honourably, having made a fair step to the settlement of these nations, by making a way for successive parliaments.

“ But I must needs say, that if any different counsels should be taken, which I have no reason to fear, these nations would presently be thrown back into force and violence, and all hopes of this much-desired establishment be buried in disorder; which the Lord, in his great mercy, I hope, will prevent: and so God speed you well together, and unite your hearts for the preservation of peace, and settlement of these nations to his own glory, and yours and all our comforts.”

Then follow the journals of both houses for the year 1660, several declarations and letters from the king at Breda, to the parliament, city of London, and general Monke. The following anecdote from Dr. Price, with our authors reflections, may not be unacceptable to our readers, as they clearly set forth the artful conduct of general Monke.

“ During the recess of the house of commons, the general and Sir John Grenville consulted together about the delivery of his message, letters, &c. from his majesty to both houses. That which was superscribed to the general, to be by him communicated to the army and council of state, was, by his appointment, delivered to him at the door of the council-chamber, where Grenville attended, and into which, as colonel Birch, one of the members of it, was entering, Grenville requested him (but unknown) that he might speak with my lord-general; who, upon Birch's intimation, came to the door, and there, in the sight of his guards attending, received Grenville's letters, but not with much regard either to his person or his business; of which the general seemed to understand somewhat by the seal, and asked him if he would stay there till he had his answer, otherwise his guards should secure him, commanding them to look to him. So his excellency produceth his letters to the council of state, Grenville is sent for in, and Birch protested that he nei-

ther knew the gentleman nor his business. The lord-president of the council examined Grenville from whence those letters came, whose they were, and how he came by them, (for as yet they were not opened) he told the president that the king, his master, gave him them with his own hands at Breda : so the opening of them was deferred till the parliament sat. Grenville was to have been sent into custody, but the general was his bail, who said he knew the gentleman, (being his near kinsman) and would take his parole to appear before the parliament."

' It is easy to see by this quotation from the reverend author, which we have given verbatim, that the general had thought it his interest to carry on the delusion to the last. But now, he adds, the Monke's hood was to be taken off, and the general was to declare his attachment to the king and royal family in full parliament. How far this chicanery was commendable we shall not determine ; 'tis plain he gained his point quite thro' by the deepest dissimulation, and waded thro' some very dirty ways to come at it. But, if we may believe our reverend writer, his master designed to have played a nobler game, if this he was acting should be circumvented. For, on Lambert's escape, and his taking the field, he sent for Sir John Grenville, and told him, ' That if colonel Ingoldsby was beaten, and the army went over to follow Lambert, he was resolved then to put off his disguise, declare the king's commission, own it for the authority by which he acted, and commission the royal party into arms in all places throughout England, Scotland, and Ireland : wherefore he required Sir John to attend him, and receive orders from him for his majesty's service.'

Without troubling the reader with further extracts, or a recital of the contents of the volume, we will satisfy ourselves with assuring him, that he will here find the most satisfactory account of the state of the nation for some months preceding the restoration, and of the means by which that happy event was effected, that has hitherto appeared. A vast collection of original papers, to which former writers had no access, have been carefully consulted, and the whole digested and compiled with such accuracy, as renders the *Parliamentary History* a valuable acquisition to the Republic of Letters, and gives us room to wish, that the learned authors will continue their labours, so useful to the public, and advantageous to their own reputation.

ART. X. *The Voice of Peace: or, Considerations upon the Invitation of the Kings of Great Britain and Prussia for holding a Congress. Together with a Plan of Pacification. In six Letters. By the Secretary to the Spanish Embassy at the Hague. 3vo. Pr. 1s. Kearsly.*

WHETHER this little performance properly belongs to the author to whom it is attributed by the English editor, we cannot pretend to determine; confident we are, however, that none of the belligerent powers will have reason to complain, that the writer has disclosed the mysteries of the cabinet, and exposed those secrets upon which depended his fortune in the war, and prospect of some advantage in the negotiations for a peace. He speaks indeed decisively, arrogates to himself the penetration of a Machiavel, explains the views, designs, interests, resources, and actual strength of the several powers engaged in the present war; he writes prettily and speciously, professes the utmost candour, and maintains, with decent dignity, the character he assumes of a person instructed in all the intrigues of courts; but we fear that a critical eye will perceive his account of the origin of the war, to be partial; his comparison of the strength and ability of the belligerent powers to prosecute the war, fallacious; the motives that ought to induce each to seek peace, specious, and the plan sketched out for a general pacification, inadequate to the purpose.

The author seems to think the king of Great Britain culpable for retaliating in Europe the encroachments made on the British colonies in America, contrary to the faith of treaties, and the most solemn engagements. The capture of the Lys and Alcide gave birth, in his opinion, to the war in Germany, though it is certain the French were preparing to march forces into the empire, previous to this transaction; and that the policy of that court must have compensated her weakness at sea, and in North America, by distracting Great Britain, and obliging her to keep an army and carry on a war where she could least support it. We should be glad to know whether his Prussian majesty had not communicated both to the courts of London and Versailles, the schemes carried on against him, long before the capture of the two French men of war; and whether these designs were not the real causes of the war in Europe? We will ask our author, whether he thinks it possible that a war between France and England can ever be confined to America, though it may arise from contests about their several limits there?

Let the reader judge, if the following be a fair representation of the comparative strength of France and England: 'In casting
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ing an eye (says our author) upon the kingdom of France, we see that it is a kingdom generally fertile, of vast extent, and inhabited by about 18 million of people, watered on one side by the ocean, on the other by the Mediterranean, containing many navigable rivers, consequently in an advantageous situation for commerce; its coasts provided by many excellent ports, and every where in a good state of defence; its frontiers strongly guarded by innumerable fortresses, which cover it from any sudden invasion; the nation is warlike and industrious, and has a considerable traffick: its sovereign can easily raise two hundred and fifty thousand men, all regular troops, and much more if he finds it necessary. His kingdom has not been attacked, and the theatre of war is at a great distance; for the enterprizes against its coasts have ended in nothing. This is its strength: its weakness is this; throughout its ministry there is some hidden vice, at least we may suppose so by the frequent changes that have happened in it of late; the administration of its finances is not upon a good footing; the variation of projects in order to increase it, and the recourse they have already had to expedients made use of but in the most pressing need, are evident proofs of it; its credit is entirely lost with foreigners, and very weak at home: coin is extremely scarce, and large quantities of it daily sending abroad, and but little ever returns, so that the scarcity must increase; her marine is in a languishing condition, and her commerce, if not entirely ruined, is extremely out of order; her principal possessions in America, except Martinico, in the hands of her enemy, without any expectations of ever retaking them.

* Great Britain is an island, which, compared to France, in regard to extent, is vastly inferior. It contains between seven and eight millions of inhabitants, guarded by nature: she cannot be attacked but by sea, consequently stands in no need of fortresses, nor is she obliged to entertain a great number of troops within herself; and the establishment of a militia, which has lately been set on foot, adds to her security. The nation is fit for war, as well by land as sea, and notwithstanding the one she is now engaged in, her commerce still flourishes; her marine is formidable, and superior to that of all other powers; the government's credit is unbounded, as well at home as abroad; she has not only delivered the states of Brunswick and Hesse, but has made considerable conquests in America. This is a faithful picture of her strength; now let us see her weak side: her public revenues are very moderate, insomuch that the money borrowed upon parliamentary security is at least two thirds of it required for carrying on the war; for the new taxes are in great part

part employed in paying off the interest of their loans; so that it is to be apprehended these bargains will weaken public credit; for it is certain that the national debt amounts to above 90 millions sterling: besides, it is notorious, that she cannot raise the number of men she would, and it will be impossible for her to send an army into Germany next campaign equal to that of France. The island of Minorca is in the hands of the enemy, though it must be confessed this disadvantage is of no great consequence; and her commerce, though it be still flourishing, is neither so lucrative nor extensive as it would be in time of peace.

Then follows the plan of pacification laid down by our author. 'In regard to the crowns of England and France, I am of opinion, that every thing well considered, the latter power should give up the island of Minorca, and make a considerable cession in America, upon condition of having the island of Goree restored by the English; besides what they may have taken from their enemies in the East-Indies; tho' the conclusion of a peace between those two powers may be attended with some difficulties, they are nothing in comparison to those which will arise in settling the affairs of Germany; these seem almost insurmountable.

'Many princes of the empire think themselves injured, and all require reparation of one prince, who does not seem inclin'd to make any concessions. So many demands on the one side, and a flat refusal on the other, afford but a gloomy prospect; yet an end must be put to the war, for the continuance of it will but entangle affairs the more. In order then, to finish at once the troubles which have afflicted, and still afflict, that unhappy country, and obtain the salutary end of peace, suppose that a *secularization* was to take place: this proposal, I know, will startle many, who may cry out, What! because secular powers are too obstinate to desist from their claims, or at too great a distance to make proper sacrifices, must the church be robbed? Must she be at the expence of their reconciliation? But here it is necessary to understand what is meant by the words *at the expence of the church*; if the public revenues, with the sovereignty of a county, which is called a bishopric, is granted to a secular prince, the loss cannot be very considerable to the church. What, shall the preservation of a right, which now and then confers a living upon an ecclesiastic, be preferred to advantages arising from public tranquility? When that is established the clergy receive the same benefits from it with the rest of mankind; let it suffice that care be taken to preserve the free exercise of the Roman catholic religion; after all, if in the last century, during the famous thirty years war which then afflicted Germany,

Germany, recourse was had to the same expedient in order to terminate it, why should it not be attempted now.

‘ I know not, Sir, whether this will agree with your sentiments, and whether you conceive that the means I propose may be sufficient to effect a peace in Germany; I shall, however, agreeable to this idea, give a sketch of the conditions by which this desirable work may be brought to bear.

‘ These conditions are, 1st, That after the decease of the present elector of Cologne, the country of Munster shall be given in sovereignty to the king of Prussia, and be made hereditary. 2dly, The king of Prussia shall cede the upper quarter of Gueldres, which belongs to him as well as the dutchy of Meurs, to the empress-queen. 3dly, The king of England, as elector of Hanover, shall have the bishopric of Osnabrug, on condition of paying, either at one time, or by different payments, a certain sum of money to the king of Poland. 4thly, The same prince shall pay another sum, less considerable, to the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. 5thly, The king of Prussia shall also pay a sum of money to his Polish majesty. 6thly, Another lesser sum to the duke of Mecklenbourg-Schwerin. 7thly, The empress-queen shall cause one to be paid to the king of Poland. 8thly, The contracting powers shall engage to employ their good offices, after the death of his Polish majesty, towards the grandees of that kingdom, for causing prince Xaverius to be elected king of Poland and great duke of Lithuania. 9thly, A general amnesty shall take place, and things, so far as they are conformable to treaties, shall remain upon the same footing as they were before the troubles.’

The merest dabbler in politics knows, that such partial concessions as are here proposed, will never satisfy the parties. The war commenced with views very different. Austria had Silesia and the county of Glatz for her object; Saxony will now require ample indemnification; Russia will not easily part with her acquisitions; and Prussia may have demands upon the courts of Vienna and Petersburg, which they will be in no disposition to grant. If France can make an impression on the electorate of H———, she will require that all the British conquests in North America be ceded. The people of England will clamour at the insolence of the demand, and the m——r who complies with it will run the utmost hazard. In a word, each of the courts will expect a gratification, very different from what our author proposes. These are our sentiments of this little performance, which, however, has great merit in point of elegance and pretty writing.

ART.

ART. XI. *The Law of Nations; or Principles of the Law of Nature: Applied to the Conduct and Affairs of Nations and Sovereigns. By M. de Vattel. A Work tending to display the true Interest of Powers. Translated from the French. 4to. Price 12 s. Newbery.*

THOUGH the task of being obliged to read all the publications of the month be a very disagreeable one, yet we sometimes meet with a book which amply repays us for our former drudgery; as Eastern travellers often meet in the sandy and trackless desert some spots of verdure where to rest, and gain new strength for the succeeding journey. Whether we consider the work before us as calculated to direct men in power, to instruct philosophers, or entertain the indolent, in every light it will appear admirable; every page proclaims the author a fine reasoner, a pleasing writer, and a friend to man.

Books which profess to teach the law of nations, should ever be received by society with gratitude and applause; for nations may be properly said to have no other appeal but to those books, when private conscience fails to direct them. Such performances increase every bond in the society of states. Equitable laws, laid down by philosophers without partiality, and without fear, serve as an open reproach to those nations, who, neglecting justice, have recourse to arms: they second the complaints of the oppressed, and give weight to national recrimination.

Equity and politics have long had opposite significations: governors have long been taught to believe, that deceit and injustice are essential in the welfare and government of states. What applause, therefore, does not he deserve whose aim is to shew, (and such is the design of our author) that there is no better and safer policy than that which is founded on virtue.

In prosecuting this work he has, in general, taken Wolfius, the Saxon philosopher, for his guide; though in many places he contradicts his master. Perhaps it will give an English reader particular satisfaction, all along, to find the opinions of his countrymen here adopted; and the state, of which he is himself a member, adduced as a proof of the most wise and happy constitution. In this treatise he will find the opinions of Milton (as great a philosopher as he was a poet) and Harrington confirmed; while the maxims of Puffendorf and Grotius, who frequently adapted their opinions to the states in which they lived, are refuted with strength and perspicuity.

Our author begins by considering every state as constituting one moral personage, and the aggregate of those states as a number of individuals, who, as they have no superior law, are supposed to be governed by the law within them, the law of conscience or nature. To express it in other words, nations are considered as so many particular persons, living together in a state of nature; and for that reason subjected to all the duties and rights which nature lays upon mankind, since they are born free, and are only bound to each other by the single knot Nature herself has tied. But the nature and essence of these moral persons necessarily differ, in many respects, from the nature and essence of physical individuals, or the men of which they are composed. In applying, therefore, a law peculiar to nations, it must not be the same with that applied to individuals in particular; but must suffer a change suitable to the new subjects to which it is applied: hence the law of nations does not in every thing remain the same as the law of nature, regulating the actions of individuals, and therefore demands to be separately and distinctly treated.

* As the end of the natural society established between all mankind, is their lending their mutual assistance towards their own perfection and that of the state; and as the nations considered as so many free persons who live together in a state of nature, are obliged to cultivate between each other this intercourse of humanity; the end of the great society established by nature between all nations is also a mutual assistance for the improvement of themselves and their state.

* The first general law, which the very end of the society of nations discovers, is that each nation ought to contribute all in its power to the happiness and perfection of others.

* But the duties towards ourselves, having incontestably the advantage over our duty with respect to others, a nation ought in the first place, preferably to all other considerations, to do whatever it can to promote its own happiness and perfection. (I say whatever it can, not only in a physical, but in a moral sense, that is, what it can do lawfully, and consistently with justice and integrity.) When therefore it cannot contribute to the welfare of another without doing an essential injury to itself, the obligation ceases on this particular occasion, and the nation is considered as under an impossibility of performing that office.

* Nations being free and independent of each other, in the same manner as men are naturally free and independent, the second general law of their society is, that each nation ought to be left in the peaceable enjoyment of that liberty it has derived from

from nature. The natural society of nations cannot subsist, if the rights each has received from nature are not respected. None would willingly renounce its liberty, it would rather break off all commerce with those that should attempt to violate it.

‘ From this liberty and independence it follows, that every nation is to judge of what its conscience demands, of what it can or cannot do, of what is proper, or improper to be done; and consequently to examine and determine whether it can perform any office for another, without being wanting in what it owes to itself. In all cases then, where a nation has the liberty of judging what its duty requires, another cannot oblige it to act in such or such a manner. For the attempting this would be doing any injury to the liberty of nations. A right to offer constraint to a free person, can only be invested in us in such cases where that person is bound to perform some particular thing for us, or from a particular reason that does not depend on his judgment; or, in a word, where we have a complete authority over him.’

‘ Since men are naturally equal, and their rights and obligations are the same, as equally proceeding from nature, nations composed of men considered as so many free persons, living together in the state of nature, are naturally equal, and receive from nature the same obligations and rights. Power or weakness does not in this respect produce any difference. A dwarf is as much a man as a giant; a small republic is as much a sovereign state as the most powerful kingdom.

‘ Nations being free, independent and equal, and having a right to judge according to the dictates of conscience, of what is to be done in order to fulfil its duties; the effect of all this is, the producing, at least externally, and among men, a perfect equality of rights between nations, in the administration of their affairs, and the pursuit of their pretensions, without regard to the intrinsic justice of their conduct, of which others have no right to form a definitive judgment; so that what is permitted in one, is also permitted in the other, and they ought to be considered in human society as having an equal right.

‘ It is therefore necessary, on many occasions, that nations should suffer certain things to be done, that are very unjust and blameable in their own nature, because they cannot oppose it by open force, without violating the liberty of some particular state, and destroying the foundation of natural society.’ And hence arises the difference between the law of nature and of nations.

The English furnish us with an example of a nation labouring for its own perfection: 'That illustrious nation (says the philosopher) distinguishes itself in a glorious manner by its application to every thing that can render the state the most flourishing. An admirable constitution there places every citizen in a situation that enables him to contribute to this great end, and every-where diffuses a spirit of true patriotism, which is zealously employed for the public welfare. We there see mere citizens form considerable enterprizes, in order to promote the glory and welfare of the nation. And while a bad prince would be abridged of his power, a king, endowed with wisdom and moderation, finds the most powerful succours to give success to his great designs. The nobles and the representatives of the people form a band of confidence between the monarch and the nation, and concur with him in every thing that concerns the public welfare; ease him in part of the burden of government; confirm his power, and render him an obedience the more perfect, as it is voluntary. Every good citizen sees that the strength of the state is really the welfare of all, and not that of a single person. Happy constitution! which they did not suddenly obtain; it has cost rivers of blood; but they have not purchased it too dear. May luxury, that pest so fatal to the manly and patriotic virtues, that minister of corruption so dangerous to liberty, never overthrow a monument that does so much honour to human nature; a monument capable of teaching kings, how glorious it is to rule over a free people!'

'There is another nation illustrious by its valour and its victories. It has a multitude of nobility distinguished by their bravery; its dominions, which are of vast extent, might render it respectable throughout all Europe, and in a short time it might be in a most flourishing situation. But its constitution opposes this, and the attachment of the nobles to that constitution is such, that there is no room to expect a proper remedy will ever be applied. In vain might a magnanimous king, raised by his virtues above the pursuits of ambition and injustice, form the most salutary designs for promoting the happiness of his people; in vain might he cause them to be approved by the most sensible, and even the greatest part of the nation: a single deputy, obstinate or corrupted by a foreign power, might put a stop to all, and break the wisest and most necessary measures. From an excessive jealousy of its liberty, the nation has taken such precautions as must necessarily place it out of the power of the king to make any attempts on the liberties of the public. But do not we see that these measures exceed the end; that they would tie the hands of the most just and wise prince,

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and deprive him of the means of securing the public freedom from the enterprizes of foreign powers, and of rendering the nation rich and happy? Do we not see that the nation itself is placed out of the power of acting, and that its § councils are committed to the caprice or treachery of a single minister?’

A political society being a moral person, endowed with an understanding and a will, when this society confers the sovereignty on any particular individual, ‘ they must invest him with their understanding and will; and make over to him their obligations and rights, so far as relates to the administration of the affairs of state, and the exercise of the public authority; thus the sovereign, or conductor of the state becoming the subject, in which reside the obligations and rights relative to government, in him is found the moral person, who, without absolutely ceasing to exist in the nation, acts from thence forwards only in and by him. Such is the origin of the representative character attributed to the sovereign. He represents the nation in all the affairs it was capable of managing as sovereign. It does not debase the dignity of the greatest monarch to attribute to him this representative character; on the contrary, nothing can make him shine with greater lustre: for by this means the monarch unites, in his own person, all the majesty that belongs to the entire body of the nation.

* But this high attribute of sovereignty is no reason why a nation should not curb an insupportable tyrant, call him even to an account, respecting in his person the majesty of his rank, and withdraw itself from his obedience. To this indisputable right a powerful republic owes its birth. The tyranny exercised by Philip II. in the Netherlands, excited those provinces to rise: seven of them, closely confederated, bravely maintained their liberties, under the conduct of a hero of the house of Orange, and Spain, after several vain and destructive efforts, acknowledged them sovereign and independent states. If the authority of the prince is limited and regulated by the fundamental laws, the prince on leaving the bounds prescribed him, commands without any right, and even without a just title; the nation, then, is not obliged to obey him; but may resist his unjust enterprizes. As soon as he attacks the constitution of the state, the prince breaks the contract which bound the people to him; the people became free by the act of the sovereign, and see nothing in him but an usurper who would load them with oppression. This truth is acknowledged by every sensible writer, whose pen

§ We suppose the author means Sweden.

is not enslaved by fear, or rendered venial by interest. But some celebrated authors maintain, that if the prince is invested with the supreme command in a full and absolute manner, nobody has a right to resist him, much less to curb him, and that the nation has no resource left but to suffer and obey with patience. This is founded upon the supposition that such a sovereign need not give an account to any person of the manner in which he governs; and that if the nation might controul his actions and resist him, where they were found to be unjust, his authority would no longer be absolute; which would be contrary to this hypothesis. They say that an absolute sovereign possesses completely all the political authority of the society, in which nobody can oppose him; if he abuses it, he does ill, indeed, and wounds his conscience, but that his commands are not the less obligatory, as being founded on a lawful right to command: that the nation, by giving him absolute authority, had reserved nothing to itself, and had submitted to his discretion, &c. We might satisfy ourselves with answering, that in this light there is not any sovereign who is completely and fully absolute. But, in order to remove all these vain subtilties, let us remember the essential end of civil society: is it not to labour in concert for the common happiness of all? Is it not with this view that every citizen strips himself of his rights, and resigns his liberty? Was it in the power of the society to make such use of its authority as to deliver up itself, and all its members, without relief, to the discretion of a cruel tyrant? No, certainly, since it had no right itself, if it was disposed to it, to oppress a part of the citizens. When it therefore conferred the supreme and absolute government, without an express reserve, it was necessarily with the tacit reserve, that the sovereign should use it for the safety of the people, and not for their ruin. If he becomes the scourge of the state he degrades himself; he is no more than a public enemy, against whom the nation may and ought to defend itself; and if he has carried his tyranny to the utmost height, why should even the life of so cruel and perfidious an enemy be spared? Who presumes to blame the Roman senate, that declared Nero an enemy to his country?'

Though these are new truths among foreigners, though our author deserves the thanks of mankind for bravely daring to assert them, yet in England they have been for many years inculcated. In defence of such principles many brave assertors of the rights of mankind have lost their lives, and strengthened their opinions by cementing them with their blood. Though such truths seem so self-evident as scarce to demand the formality of a demonstration; yet is it not certain, that they have
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been, but a few years ago, even among ourselves, opposed by a deluded party; and that thousands have undergone every misery, not to promote their own happiness, or that of the state, but in order to make one single ambitious man something more happy?

By this time the reader perceives our author's principles, and his manner of reasoning from them. By even so short a specimen, he appears to be divested of those prejudices which former writers have ran into upon the subject. Some, bred up in republics, have brought all their principles and arguments to favour only the legislation of their native country: others, on the contrary, have, from similar causes, been as strenuous assertors of the prerogatives of monarchy. The author in view steers between both: lays it down as a maxim, that the laws of nature are of the first obligation; and that, whatever voluntary laws we after form, those primary laws still hold their former force, while the latter are ever to be observed, while they do not contradict them. Though we may consent to be governed by one, yet this consent implied, that it is in order to be more happy; for no nation would (nor, in the nature of things, could they) make a law which should render each other miserable.

[To be continued.]

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

ART. XII. *Histoire de la Republique de Venise, depuis sa Fondation jusqu' à present. Par M. L'Abbe Laugier, 3 Tom. 8vo.*

A Complete history of the ancient and illustrious republick of Venice has been long wished for by the learned. Sabellicus, Mauroceni, Dandolo, Paruta, and all the best historians of this common-wealth, have either broke off their narration at an early period, or confined themselves to the relation of some particular event. We have indeed a variety of writers who give the political history of Venice, as far as can be known from the extraordinary secrecy of the government, or the terror inspired by that horrible tribunal the state-inquisition; but our author, we believe, is the first who has attempted to deduce a regular series of events from the first foundation of the city to the present state of the republick, describing its rise, progress, height and decline, in a full, explicit, and connected narration. We except Sani, because he has written in Italian, and is for that reason less generally known.

The abbe Laugier introduces his history with an historical preface, in which he discusses a great number of important subjects. Among others, he treats of the internal constitution

of the republick, and seems to borrow freely from M. Amelot, a writer long resident in a public capacity in Venice. Nothing, however, more than conjecture can be offered upon this head. So jealous are the Venetians of permitting the secrets of government to transpire, that a foreigner who expresses the least curiosity, stands in imminent danger of his life. With respect to the historical part, our author has considerable merit. The narrative is well connected, the remarkable epochs distinctly marked, the rise and progress of commerce, in particular, minutely related; the maritime power of the republick well described; the causes of its decline minutely explained, and the whole history wrote with abundance of spirit. The language is however in many places faulty, and the author has, either from inattention or haste, fallen into a number of vulgarisms and familiar phrases unbecoming the dignity of history, and unworthy of an author who would seem to aspire at the merit of being reckoned an animated and elegant writer. Sometimes his imagination hurries him into bombast and inflated descriptions, where he seems to have changed the character of the historian, for that of the poet. But without specifying particulars, which would only prove tedious and insipid to an English reader, we will venture to recommend this work, with all its blemishes, as a performance fraught with entertainment, and deserving the countenance of the learned.

ART. XIII. *L'Europe vivante et mourante; ou Tableau annuel des principales Cours de l'Europe; suite du Memorial de Chronologie, Genealogique, et Historique—ann. 1759.*

THE design of this performance is sufficiently expressed in the title-page; but we find it abundantly more accurate and intelligent than could possibly be expected. It comprehends an infinity of useful, interesting knowledge, of which every man of fashion and of learning ought to be ashamed to profess himself ignorant. There is scarce a person of consideration in any court in Europe but is here characterized, his family traced, with every other circumstance of birth, fortune, and personal merit, that can attract attention, or merit regard. As the author proposes considerable enlargements in the subsequent volumes, the work may swell greatly beyond the limits intended; but will never appear tedious or prolix, while he adheres to the accuracy hitherto shewn, and continues to preserve that information that renders him an entertaining writer, and at the same time must qualify him to be an agreeable companion.

ART.

ART. XIV. *Institutions Politiques, par M. le Baron de Bielfeld.*
2 Vol. 4to.

IN an age when every other art and science is reduced to system, the curious reader will not be displeased to see the art of reigning, the most important of all arts, brought to certain principles and fixed rules. Our author has explained his political system in much the same manner as Grotius and Puffendorf have developed the rights of nature and of nations. He divides the work into three parts. The first treats of every thing that regards the interior constitution of states: The second comprehends foreign affairs; and the third displays a complete view of the present state of Europe in geographical order; beginning with Portugal, and ending with the Turkish dominions in this quarter of the globe. Nothing can exceed the judgment, the genius, the learning, and the penetration of the Baron de Bielfeld. Every chapter merits a comment; every period displays the sagacity of the writer. It would be the utmost injustice to our readers, to pass over this work with a general account; we shall therefore resume the article in our ensuing Number; satisfying ourselves for the present with having been of some advantage to the publick, by pointing out a performance which ought always to lie open in the studies of princes and courtiers.

Monthly CATALOGUE.

Art. 15. *The Minor; A Comedy of Three Acts. Pr. 1s. 6d.*
8vo. Coote.

IN this little piece the characters not only are new but well finished; at once natural and sufficiently ridiculous. Mr. Foote's present attempt serves to shew, that comic humour is by no means worn out, but that new absurdities may be every day started even in the politest age.

Comedy, it must be owned, has ever excelled in those periods when a people just began to refine; good breeding, and politeness, seem to be little more than a levelling of oddities, a correction of the luxuriations of our nature. Thus, in a very polite age, every character seems almost the same; and those absurdities, which are the poet's game, are scarce found to exist, or at least, not in sufficient number to make the satire generally pleasing.

With all this against it, however, the piece before us has peculiar merit, and deserves to be ranked among some of the best of our comic productions. We are here served up with no dull stage cant; with no stale and hackneyed repartee; the wit is original, and the satire poignant. We should however except from this a couple of incidents which are manifestly borrowed;

the one from Moliere, and the other from Farquhar : where the money-lender insists upon the borrower's taking flint-stones and whale blubber, as part payment : this too nearly resembles Harpagon's inventory of the same nature in the *L'Avare*. The bawd here drinks from the bottle, and refuses the glass : Mrs. Midnight does the same in the *Twin Rivals* ; she rejects the glass as being too big, and takes a sup from the bottle.

But among comic writers nothing is so frequent as plagiarism ; the best writers of the last age plundered Johnson, Beaumont, and Fletcher, without mercy ; and Cibber, who may be classed among the writers of this, as freely pilfered from his immediate predecessors. Perhaps, without this assistance, the vivacity of our dialogue on the stage cannot well be supported : the French comic writers seem no way solicitous about repartee, and disclaim wit, satisfied with being natural ; but it is very different on the English stage. There wit is expected as well as humour : and when we consider how seldom wit and humour are united in the same person, we should not be surprised the poet is sometimes obliged to have recourse to foreign assistance.

It may with justice be observed, that the *Minor* gives equal delight in the closet and on the stage ; and that the genteel audiences who crowd to the Haymarket, do honour to the public taste.

Art. 16. *Yorick's Meditations upon various interesting and important Subjects, viz. Upon Nothing ; upon Something ; upon the Thing ; upon the Constitution ; on Tobacco ; on Noses ; upon Quacks ; upon Midwives ; upon the Homunculus ; upon Hobby-Horses ; upon Momus's Glass ; upon Digressions ; on Obscurity in Writing ; on Nonsense ; upon the Association of Ideas ; upon Cuckolds ; upon the Man in the Moon ; upon the Monades of Leibnitz ; upon Virtú ; upon Conscience ; upon Drunkenness ; upon a Close-stool ; and Meditation upon Meditations.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Stevens.

There is something in the very overflowings and exuberances of genius that distinguish it. Every thing becomes new, and every thought is made entertaining by the novelty and ease with which it is delivered. *Meditations upon Nothing, Something, the Thing, Tobacco, Noses, Quacks, and Hobby-Horses*, would, in any other hands than Yorick's, prove an insipid medley of absurdity and impertinence. In this they are humorous, pleasant, and truly laughable. The spirit of Swift breathes through the whole performance ; and this alone, of all the numerous publications, palmed on the world for Mr. Sterne's, has caught the comic powers of the ingenious writer of the *Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy*. Let the meditation upon quacks determine the reader about the truth of our verdict.

‘ Oh !

‘ Oh! reader, when any accident seems to threaten your nose, have recourse to experienced men, of whom there is no want in this city; and beware of quacks and counterfeits—but how to escape them is the question, when you must take the word of each pretender for his own infallibility, whilst he assures you, that all the rest are ignorant impostors. Elixirs, electuaries, genuine jesuits drops, &c. are advertised in every paper, and all equally promise cure, without hindrance of business, or knowledge of a bedfellow. From Italy this pest derives its birth; and in France the race of Charlatans abounds, where the quack is at once orator and physician, and retails from a horse or scaffold his medicines to the believing crowd. Peace to all such: in every profession there are quacks. There are quacks in the law, quacks in divinity, and scribbling quacks. The first abound amongst attornies and sollicitors; clients on either side are equally assured of success—amongst the quacks in divinity the pope holds the first place; but happily his assumed infallibility begins now to be very much called in question; and those remedies for the soul’s diseases, called bulls and indulgencies, which he, like other quacks, formerly retailed to the people, have now lost much of their credit. But are there no other quacks in theology but the pope? Oh, thousands! every sect has some—The Jansenist quack amuses the people with a nostrum called grace—The methodist deals in faith—The quaker is filled with the spirit, with which he is inflated, as if full of new wine. The methodist still maintains the laudable practice of ancient quacks—he harrangues from a scaffold, erected in the fields, whilst gaping auditors admire, and listen with attention to the spiritual quacks. To him each sick and wounded soul repairs in hopes of cure. A woman here desires his prayers against the common temptation—perhaps some unexperienced girl may be inquisitive to know what the common temptation of woman is—let her wait a year or two, and she will want no information—a man here prays to be cured of the cravings of concupiscence, and many other spiritual maladies unnumbered patients bring to the spiritual quack. Quacks amongst authors too there are, and artifices have been found to conceal the ass, even these catch the eye with a title-page, and invent a thousand different expedients to excite the curiosity of readers. The advertisements in every paper are sufficient proofs of this; of all such beware, they are downright quacks in literature; and repair to my publisher, where may be had for the small price of two shillings,

The true and infallible antimalancolical ELIXER.

Being a composition of genuine wit and humour, which effectually dispels all spleen and vapours, exhilarates the spirits, and

totally removes all hypochondriac complaints, be the patient ever so far gone—It cures all sorts of fits in women, and all sorts of convulsions in men, by the mild and pleasant remedy of superinducing fits of laughter, which never fail to produce the happiest effects.

‘Here one cries out, this declaimer against quacks turns quack himself—another with a sneer asks how fits can be cured by fits? —such are the cavils of the ignorant; but is it not a maxim in physic, that contraries are cured by contraries? He that accuses me of quackery for proposing mirth as an infallible remedy, discovers his own ignorance of human nature, and is scarcely worth an answer. Thoughts that make thick the blood, produce despondence and melancholy, which generate various disorders, to be cured only by laughter, which operates happily when it runs tickling up and down the veins, straining mens eyes with idle merriment—By your leave, master Shakespear, I can’t think merriment so idle; and I make no doubt but your Falstaff has done a thousand times more good than your Hamlet. At least, I always return in a pensive humour from the latter; and such is the infection of its gloominess, that I generally find myself disposed to crawl supperless to bed; whereas from the former, I return as chearful as the merry knight himself, with whom, thank God, I have a great conformity of disposition, and so high are my spirits elevated, that I can’t help raising them a little higher by good punch, and so go to bed drunk.’

Art. 17. *The Life and Opinions of Miss Sukey Shandy*, 12mo. Price 2s. Stevens.

Alas! that obscenity and dullness should court the public favour under the admired name of Shandy. *O tempora! O mores!*

Art. 18. *Modern Honour: A Poem, in Two Cantos. Supposed to be written by Dean Swift, in 1740, and addressed to Mr. P***.* 4to. Pr. 2s. 6d. Baldwin.

Though we harbour some scruples about the veracity of the editor’s professions, who attributes this poem to Dr. Swift; yet we must acknowledge it no bad imitation of his manner, and, in many places, worthy of the humorous and witty dean of St. Patrick’s. The grave and sarcastic turn of his irony appears in the following description of his own order.

‘The grave divines, of honour boast,
Yet many a buxom beauty toast:

Still

Still so much sanctity and grace
 Ne'er felt a call for human race.
 All methods, like St. Paul, they try
 To please the great, (*good reason why*)
 In order to convert and save
 The rake, the gamester, and the knave.

* * * * *
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' To hold five livings *in commendam*,
 I greatly fear, would much offend 'em :
 Consolidate but two or three,
 To that, indeed, they might agree.
 But simony's a crime unknown,
 As ev'ry other, to the gown :
That takes a thousand pounds a year,—
 Only to keep his conscience clear ;
 A mitre *this*,—to feed the poor,
His heart as open as his door.
 He beams around a gracious smile,
 As strutting down the middle isle,
 But can't his rev'rend hands extend,
 Unless he meets a wealthy friend ;
 For dignity requires restraint,
 And freedom unbecomes a saint.
 To take the poor from Providence,
 Would give, perhaps, the good—offence :
 He therefore judges it much wiser
 To hoard his stipend, like a miser :
 No matter for his wordly coin,
 He lays up treasure more divine,
 And never minds how Jewish tallies
 Do rise and fall in London alleys.

' These, wealthy bishopricks deserve,
 As they from virtue never swerve ;
 Patterns of piety and grace,
 Which can exalt a dunghill race !
 Their lank-lean looks betray, within
 How mortify'd, and clear of sin :
 They duly fast (and watch and pray)
 Their carnal appetites away.
 But youth's a most atrocious crime,
 And never must to mitres climb.
 The trembling hand let crostiers bear,
 With all the fervency of pray'r ;

Though

Though wit or memory's defac'd,
 Their heads with silv'ry locks are grac'd :
 So dotards may supremely shine,
 Most or right rev'rendly divine.'

Art. 19. *The constant Residence of the Clergy upon their Livings shewn to be absolutely necessary for recovering the sinking Interests of Religion in general, and of the Church of England in particular : As also, the most likely, or rather the only Means proposed, and earnestly recommended, to procure, and firmly fix, such residence.* Baldwin. 4to. Price 2s. 6d.

With a considerable share of erudition, this reverend gentleman seems to be an indifferent casuist, and worse politician. After some general reflections on the prejudice arising to the publick, from the great number of licensed ale-houses, and the simoniacal practices among the clergy, he enters upon the subject expressed in his title-page, humbly proposing, 'that our church should be restored to its original state, to what it was before any *appropriations* or *alienations* were made; that it should recover its *revenues*, its true former splendor, uniformity, *devotion*, and *holy order*, after its lustre has been for so many ages greatly intercepted, and almost utterly destroyed.' This only can enable our clergy to reside with comfort upon their livings, in general too small for the decent support and dignity of the sacred order. We will forbear entering upon the reasons why we hope the author's modest proposal will never be accepted. The task would be invidious; the legislature has already considered the subject, and the publick reaped the benefit of the alienations complained of. It is sufficient we observe, that a just and equal distribution of church lands and livings would afford a comfortable subsistence for every clergyman in the kingdom; that feeling experience has already taught this nation the consequence of enlarging the spiritual power; that meekness, sobriety, temperance, and self-denial, the only means by which the clergy can gain esteem, or prove universally beneficial, may as easily be obtained and practised, as if they were restored to their former affluence and splendor; and that most reformed countries have too long tasted the sweets of liberty, ever again to receive the manacles of sacerdotal servitude.

Art. 20. *Short Animadversions on the Difference now set up between Gin and Rum, and our Mother Country and Colonies.* 4to. Price 4d. Henderson.

Without entering upon this dispute already in a measure decided by the legislature, we shall only observe, that we could
 wish

with any effectual means were contrived for abolishing the use of all strong spirits among the common people. It is a question with us, whether the price of beer (certainly a more wholesome liquor) might not be lowered, were distilling, and the use of spirits prohibited?

Art. 21. *A Proposal of a New Method for finding the Longitude at Sea, or Land: Together with the Description and Figure of a new Instrument invented for the Performance of it.* By William Jones, M. D. 4to. Hawkins. Price 2s.

As Dr. Jones acknowledges, that his scheme for ascertaining the longitude is imperfect, without tables for occasionally computing the true place of the moon, we may venture to lay it aside, with all the other attempts of this kind, until such lunar tables be framed. We humbly conceive, that the doctor is quite out of his latitude, when he employs his mind in astronomical studies, for which Nature seems to have denied him a genius, however desirous he may be of meriting the reward offered by parliament for the discovery of this philosopher's stone. Let the reader judge of this by his calling the north star 'the true center of all meridians; for the polar point is so, and every one's proper meridian does intersect and pass through it.' Verily we have here a problem started, more difficult to be resolved than that upon which the doctor has bestowed so much sweat and labour.

Art. 22. *The Lives of the principal Reformers, both Englishmen and Foreigners. Comprehending the History of the Reformation; from its Beginning, in 1360, by Dr. John Wickliffe, to its Establishment, in 1600, under Queen Elizabeth. With an Introduction, wherein the Reformation is amply vindicated, and its Necessity fully shewn, from the Degeneracy of the Clergy, and the Tyranny of the Popes.* By Mr. Rolt. The whole embellished with the Heads of the Reformers, elegantly done in Mezzotinto, by Mr. Houston. Folio. Bakewell and Parker. Price 1 l. 7 s.

This compilement is divided into three parts; each part containing seven lives.

Part I. contains, 1. John Wickliffe. 2. John Hufs. 3. Jerom of Prague. 4. John Colet. 5. Erasmus. 6. John Oecolampadus. 7. Ulricus Zuinglius.

Part II. 8. Martin Luther. 9. Martin Bucer. 10. Philip Melancthon. 11. Peter Martyr. 12. John Calvin. 13. Henry Bullinger. 14. Theodore Beza.

Part III. 15. Henry VIII. 16. Edward VI. 17. Nicholas Ridley. 18. Hugh Latimer. 19. John Hooper. 20. Thomas Cranmer. 21. Queen Elizabeth.

This compiler's introduction, wherein he promises, that the Reformation shall be amply vindicated, and its necessity fully shewn, from the degeneracy of the clergy, and the tyranny of the popes, contains nothing but a few rambling hints on the first propagation of Christianity, and some strictures on the popes who were most remarkable for their usurpations; together with some observations on the state of religion in our own country: but he refers us to some particular lives in the body of the work for what his title-page has made us expect in this introduction. How far this is fair dealing, we shall not pretend to determine.

On the whole, this work seems to be but very indifferently executed; it appears to be the offspring of a compiler, who had the task imposed upon him of blackening a certain number of sheets, no matter how. Any one who takes a cursory view of this performance, must at once be sensible of the justice of our assertion.

Art. 23. *A Letter to the Rev. Dr. Edmund Law, occasioned by his Discourse on the Nature and End of Death; and his Appendix concerning the Use of the Word Soul in Holy Scripture, and the State of Death there described.* 8vo. Bladon. Price 1 s.

Here we find a religious controversy handled with candor, decency, and that spirit of moderation which becomes ministers of Christ, and the preachers of his doctrine. It is true, the subject is of such a nature, that truth still lies at the bottom of the well, and will probably continue there, as it seems to be the wise intention of Providence, to limit the human understanding, in order to mortify our pride, and convince us of our dependence.

Art. 24. *The Gardeners Kalendar; directing what works are necessary to be performed every month in the Kitchen, Fruit, and Pleasure Gardens, as also in the Conservatory and Nursery. With Accounts of the Seasons for the Propagation of Esculent Plants and Fruits, and for transplanting of Trees, Shrubs, and Plants. To which is now added, A List of Medicinal Plants, and a short Introduction to the Knowledge of the Science of Botany, illustrated with Copper Plates. The Twelfth Edition, adapted to the New Style.* By Philip Miller, F. R. S. 8vo. Rivington. Price 5 s.

When a book, directing the practice of any art, has passed such a number of editions, it is an incontestable proof of its merit. The Gardeners Kalendar is too well known and established, to require our recommendation. We must however add, that the late edition of this valuable book seems to have been considerably improved and enlarged.

Art.

Art. 25. *An Apology for the Servants.* By Oliver Grey. Occasioned by the Representation of the Farce called High Life below Stairs, and by what has been said to their Disadvantage in the public papers. 8vo. Price 6d. Newbery.

This is a well wrote sensible little performance, containing divers strokes of satirical humour, and pertinent reflections on the absurd conduct of masters to servants. The following extracts will afford the reader no unfavourable specimen.

‘ Dick Brush and I began the world together: he was one of the finest fellows that ever wore a livery; he was handsome, genteel, sensible, and well-bred: with all these agreeable qualities, he was distinguished for his sobriety, fidelity, neatness, and diligence. He was the admiration of his fellow-servants; beloved by the women, respected by the men; and the best friend and adviser in the world to all young servants. Dick was used to say to me, whenever he heard a servant was dismissed for a foible; “ Oliver, I will hold a bottle of wine that his master has the same fault, or a worse.” When he happened to be out of place himself, and I recommended him to Mr. Such-a one’s service;—“ Can I have a good character of him?” says Dick.—He was a zealous friend to his brethren; and oftentimes used to say with much pleasantry, that there were some of the greatest men in the kingdom that wore liveries—“ Let me tell you, gentlemen, says he, one night at the club, I held it the basest thing in life for masters to abuse their servants, good, honest, faithful, worthy servants, because they have this or that fault, when they themselves are more culpable even in that very respect. When I lived in the Temple, I have been cursed for shutting the door a little too hard, when my judicious master has done nothing all the morning but play upon the hautboy. I have been scolded for sneezing at dinner, when my master the whole time has been coughing and expectorating. I have been kicked for a pert answer, and told with half a dozen oaths, that I ought to speak decently. These are things which no man of spirit can submit to; and rather than serve so self-interested and partial a master, I would even enter into the service of an apothecary, where I am to beat the mortar, carry out medicines, and wear a livery that never was made for me. If you please, gentlemen, continued Dick, let us make it our business to find out what our masters opinions of us are, and report it this day month to the club: I’ll be hanged if you don’t all think with me.” This proposal was unanimously agreed to; we met accordingly, and Dick being in the chair, desired we would relate in order what we had collected on the subject; and, as his right-hand man, he addressed himself first to me. I

rose up, and, with great respect to the chair, told them, I had the pleasure to find that my master had but one very material objection to me. " Oliver, I have overheard him to say to a friend, is a very good servant; but he brings me in confounded bills, and such a variety of articles too; it is an enormous sum that I pay the fellow for one trumpery thing or other." What business is your master of? says the chairman. I bowed respectfully, and answered, an attorney at law.—Mr. Chairman then gave a nod, and a wink, and the company joined in a laugh.—He then called upon Mr. Samuel, to give his fairly without reserve. " I live, says Samuel, with a gentleman who says I have but one fault, and that I should be the best servant in the world if I was not conceited: he often says he believes I cannot be matched for vanity, and that I care for nothing in the world so much as my own dear person, which I am perpetually admiring in the glass." And what is he, says the chairman? A player, Samuel replied. Here the laugh was louder. Mr. William being called upon, delivered himself thus: " I am not quite so happy, Sir, in my service as the two gentlemen who have spoken before me. My master has but an indifferent opinion of me. He was saying, with much warmth, t'other day to his lady, that he believed there was not such another fellow in the kingdom as myself, for making the most of a service. There is not, says he, a transaction in the house, but Will makes a pecuniary advantage of it; not a bill paid of any kind, or to any person, but he has a slice out of it: nay, if I send down five or ten shillings, in charity, to a poor object, 'tis ten to one but he squeezes something out of it." What is your master, Mr. William? says the chairman. He answered, a clerk in the T—y. At this the laugh became very loud and long; and the chairman concluded the subject by observing, how blind men were to their own failings, and how ready to censure them in others. " I am convinced, says he, that our cloth would not be half so bespattered, if a man, before he condemns a servant for any fault, would enquire if it was not a principal ingredient in his own character."

Certain we are, that the capricious, dissolute, and profligate lives of masters, are too frequently the occasion of insolence, immorality, and the most flagrant vices in servants.

Art. 26. *A Sea-Piece written on the Coast near Mount's-Bay, in Cornwall.* By the Rev. Mr. Moore. 4to. Price 6d. Baldwin.

The Gods have denied our author genius; but they have blessed him with perseverance. If we mistake not, we admonished the reverend Mr. Moore to lay aside poetry, and confine himself to the instruction of his flock in humble prose; yet still he blunders on, regardless of Minerva and the critics.

Art.

- Art. 27. *The Life and Opinions of Jeremiah Kunaastrokius, Doctor of Physic, &c.* 12mo. Price 2s. 6d. Cabe.

This is the æra of nonsense, when the press groans under a multiplicity of absurd, foolish, and ridiculous publications, that disgrace a nation distinguished by foreigners for its good sense and learning.

- Art. 28. *A Chronicle of the War between the Felicianites, the Gallianites, and their Allies; and the Downfall of George the Son of the Lion. Together with the Book of his Lamentations.* 8vo. Price 1s. Wilkie.

We cannot intirely agree to the severe sentence passed on this little performance by the forward critics of the Monthly Review. We have seen worse imitations of the Eastern stile; but it were to be wished, that a writer, seemingly acquainted with the Sacred Writings, had paid more regard to the virtues they recommend above all others: we mean charity and brotherly affection.

- Art. 29. *Quebec: A poetical Essay, in Imitation of the Miltonic Stile: Being a regular Narrative of the Proceedings and Capital Transactions performed by the British Forces under the Command of Vice-Admiral Saunders and Major-General Wolf, in the glorious Expedition against Canada, in the year 1759. The Performance of a Volunteer on board his Majesty's Ship Somersset, during the Passage home from Quebec. The Whole embellished with entertaining and explanatory Notes.* 4to. Price 1s. 6d. Whitridge.

Notwithstanding the author modestly professes this performance to be the first essay of an infant Muse, trying her poetical wings, and fluttering round the regions of Parnassus, there gleam some rays of genius; that persuade us she may one day soar with bolder pinions.

- Art. 30. *The History of Sir Charles Grandison spiritualized in Part. A Vision. With Reflections thereon.* By Theophila. 12mo. Price 1s. 6d. Keith.

The sentiments of piety and resignation, under the pressure of misfortunes, that appear in this little performance, claim all the indulgence and protection due to the sex, the character, and the circumstances of the writer,

- Art. 31. *A Dialogue between the Gallows and a Freethinker.* 8vo. Price 1s. Thorowgood.

An old pamphlet ushered under a new title page.

Art.

Art. 32. *The Proceedings of a General Court-Martial, held at Guildford, August 9, 1758, on Cornet George Moreland, of the King's own Regiment of Dragoons, commanded by Major-General the Earl of Albemarle. To which is added, an Apology to Lieutenant Colonel Dalrymple, of the same Regiment, in consequence of the Sentence.* 8vo. Price 1s. Scott.

This trial is of so private a nature, that it cannot possibly interest the public. One officer abuses the character of another; he is tried by a court-martial: the evidence appears so doubtful, and the reputation of the parties so equal, that the court, at a loss what sentence to pass, leaves the matter undetermined.

Art. 33. *An Apologetical Oration on an extraordinary Occasion. By John Asgill, Esq; To which is added, A Postscript.* 8vo. 1s. Cooper.

Could argument and good writing stop the popular clamour against a late unfortunate commander, we should lament that this little spirited pamphlet had not made its appearance sooner.

Art. 34. *An Answer to Asgill's Apologetical Oration upon an extraordinary Occasion: Written by Way of Postscript to the Consolatory Letter to a Noble Lord, late in the military Service. By the Author of the said Letter.* 8vo. Pr. 6d. Hooper.

A scurrilous, bitter invective against L— G—— S——.

Art. 35. *A Companion to the Guide, and a Guide to the Companion: Being a compleat Supplement to all the Accounts of Oxford hitherto published. Containing an accurate Description of several Halls, Libraries, Schools, Public Edifices, Busts, Statues, Antiquities, Hieroglyphics, Seats, Gardens, and other Curiosities, omitted and misrepresented, by Wood, Hearn, Salmon, Prince, Pointer, and other eminent Topographers, Chronologers, Antiquarians, and Historians. The Whole interspersed with original Anecdotes, and interesting Discoveries, occasionally resulting from the Subject.* 12mo. 6d. Payne.

A dry, humorous, and sarcastic description of Oxford, that has probably excited peals of laughter and claps of applause among the witty circle at James's Coffee-house.